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The Social Studies

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MAY, 1949

Expanding the Historical Sense

IONE HANSOME

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"Some day history may well become the most potent instrument for human regeneration." In this prediction James Harvey Robinson exhibited the horizon-searching sense, the positive, constructive outlook. The view that history may become an effective means for the deliberate improvement of human life, of all the actors in the drama, Robinson shared with all the great social "Eutopians."¹ That attitude follows also partly from his idea of the meaning of history. He conceived of history as "an effort to recall those reminiscences of the past which cast most light on the present." His is clearly the larger view with an up-to-date regard for the needs of the public and its problems. Here, then, is a general criterion both for those who would study for the sake of understanding, as well as for those who seek a solution to the insistent problems of the time.

Obviously, as a professional historian, Robinson was interested also in history as a method of inquiry, and, in this respect, he generously credited the writers of natural history and sociology with being pioneers in the genetic and cultural treatment of natural and historical phenomena. Nor, did he, as an advocate of the newer textbooks in history, minimize the importance of history as a body of organized factual knowledge. He insisted, however, that history is more than a coordinated accumulation of fragmentary facts with which to burden the pupils who must read up to pass an examination. Although he diligently aimed to employ

the test of relevancy to present-day problems, and although his selective interest was more inclusive and the margin of his bias less exclusive, he did not succeed in embodying the novel idea in a distinctive text. Maybe someone is now quietly producing a text which begins in the present, with the unsolved problems inherited from previous times.

Indeed, the textbook writers must do a great deal of rethinking in the light of that test, in the light of a broader historical sense, and, with proper weight given to the colossal, mounting volume of facts, not to omit regard for the available leisure time of the student and general reader.

The time is past when we should make youth into an omnibus in which to carry the whole detailed record. Let us jettison the corpses of history. Out with the highly sanctioned inconsequentialities, the long reputed errors, the sterile detritus of dead learning, the putrescent debris of superstitions and ignorance. What need has a cargo-carrying ship of dead ballast? "Information Please," yes, but information with significant bearing on our problems.

The late Franz Boas freely admitted in his maturity that the *Gelehrte* sometimes get lumbered down with the useless deposits of historical tradition that tend to dull their forward-seeing perspicuity and to disorient their feelings for the current scene of problem-solving. Neither is history wholly a quantitative accounting; it is not a mere pile of data but a point of view, a qualitative meaningfulness. (Henry N. Wieman's phrase.)

That point of view is the historical sense which may be described as a kind of social

¹ The term "Eutopia" (meaning good city), sometimes credited to the late Patrick Geddes, is a useful distinction from the meaning attached to Utopia and Utopians. Writers in town planning are bringing the word into common currency.

awareness, that, in persons, places, institutions, and events throughout the world, energies are operative, tendencies, trends, and currents appear to offer continuity of possibilities for progressive approximation toward peace, freedom, and solidarity of human kind. This is, presumably, what Professor E. P. Cheyney had in mind in his presidential address before the American Historical Association a generation ago. He dignified six major historic tendencies into laws, perhaps to indicate the emphasis of his conviction.

The historical sense is a consciousness of history as a continuous, changing, interdependent, liberating process, a drama in which we as individuals come on the stage regardless of our wishes and pass off against our will, a feeling of identification with, and participating in, a movement of events greater than ourselves. (Acknowledgment to J. Hutton Hynd, leader of the Ethical Society of St. Louis.)

Carlyle and Emerson surely erred in contending that there is no history but only biography of the so-called "Big Boys." Those authors flunked on the objective-subjective relation test.

The world today is admittedly an imperfectly-going concern. Like a ship long at sea, it has gathered barnacles, but unlike a ship, the world cannot be put in a dry-dock or sailed into a fresh water lake where the barnacles would drop off. And yet, the latter figure applies in part, for the world receives fresh generations of youth; some people do learn from experience; some precious deviates do make discoveries and inventions that bring significant social consequences. Some people do not allow their memories to become senile, as many writers of history have. Perhaps the latter's omissions and commissions were due to a deliberate cultivation of good forgetteries, philistine duplicity, and a bland indifference to unpleasant facts of reality. If the truth had been told to the people, as Lincoln suggested, people would not have to repeat history. That is a severe indictment and moral challenge. The truth will out—if not soon, then later.

The study of history is assuming vital importance today, particularly in view of the lethal weapons men have devised for mutual extermination of the human species. Also, the present world community is too large to be known at

first hand by the many. We in America have been thrust out of our geographical isolation into the midstream of world movements. Our place of leadership calls for a new awareness, for an expansiveness of the historical sense. We cannot allow a repetition of what John Dewey wrote in that seminal book, *Human Nature and Conduct*:

History shows how little the progress of man has been the product of intelligent guidance, how largely it has been a by-product of accidental upheavals. . . . We have depended upon the clash of war, the stress of revolutions, the emergence of heroic individuals, the impact of migrations generated by war and famine, the incoming of barbarians, to change established institutions. Instead of constantly utilizing unused impulse to effect a continuous reconstruction, we have waited till an accumulation of stresses suddenly breaks through the dikes of custom." (p. 101).

It is a hopeful sign, however, that our high schools are increasingly offering instruction in world history or the history of civilization and culture. Through the high schools, some of the newer learning will percolate to the masses.

Here at Reedley, we are trying hard to expand the historical sense through a study of world history. The writer has worked out some objectives and questions which she desires to share with fellow teachers in the hope that some critical suggestions will be shared in turn.

General Objectives:

1. To get a fairly whole and factual picture of the world we live in and to train undisciplined youth in methods of inquiry and in the way human activities are organized.
2. To appreciate the universal kinship of all humanity and to stimulate an expansive worldminded, Whitmanesque attitude.
3. To inquire in what sense men *do* learn from history.
4. To evoke a Promethean social will to *make* history in the general public interest.
5. To become aware of our mutual responsibility for the conservation and change of those conditions, values, attitudes, interests, and motives which conduce to an increase of human good throughout the world; to develop the urge to achievement, improvement and enjoyment.

Some Guide Lines to Understanding and Societal Direction

1. What do we understand by the historical sense?
2. What is the amalgam that ties past, present, and future together into a continuity?
3. How does the present always intervene in our interpretation?
4. How do possibilities of the future influence our evaluation of the past?
5. What conditions how much of the past we really need to study and know?
6. What is meant by the "dead past," "living past," "new past?"
7. How have the "pick and shovel historians" illuminated the past?
8. Why do we sometimes repeat the errors of the past?
9. In what sense is history unique, in what sense universal? If altogether unique would it be possible to understand it and learn from it?
10. It is a fact of biology that life is reproduced by the living, not by the dead. What is the corollary of history?
11. In what way can history throw light upon the conditions which make for success or failure in life?
12. In what sense is the recognition of necessity the mother of invention and the father of change and the parent of freedom?
13. To what degree could history be written and interpreted in terms of discovery and invention including social inventions?
14. What distinction in usage is given to the concepts of civilization and culture?
15. What is the factorial approach to history? Evaluate the biological, the geographical, the technological, genetic, the economic, the political, the educational, the legalistic, the religious interpretations of history.
16. How does a tendency or trend in history afford a clue to human motives and values? Illustrate.
17. How can a knowledge of history help us to organize the ideational, national, and human differences in the modern world into a rich, humanistic, and creative unity?
18. If each of the various disciplines; e.g., economics, politics, biology, education, science, philosophy, art, and ethics cover all of the details of their development, what then is the content of an overall history?
19. If life is an unfinished symphony, what are the dissonances, obstacles, problems which must be overcome to achieve a working harmony?
20. Commit to memory: "We must let our minds play freely over all the conditions of life till we can either justify our civilization or change it."—Graham Wallas, *The Great Society*, p. 15.

The questions cited here should impel reading, inquiry, and discussion. The formulation of answers will help the student to organize facts, research, and evidence into an inchoate system or point of view, which will, no doubt, constitute a rewarding content for the student's permanent storehouse of experience and knowledge. Unless he gains a point of view, he obtains little of significance.

The Origins of Our Philippine Policy

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"I like to think that the history of the Philippine Islands in the last forty-four years provides in a very real sense a pattern for the future of other small nations and peoples of the world." Thus spoke Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1942 on the seventh anniversary of the launching of the Philippine Commonwealth. The idea

is still pertinent to the colonial situation today. It suggests an inquiry into the nature and origins of that "pattern" of colonial relations which President Roosevelt had in mind.

The roots of our Philippine policy reach back as far as 1780. On October 10 of that year, a resolution was introduced into the Continental

Congress proposing that the western lands, when formed into states, "shall become members of the federal union, and have the same rights of sovereignty, freedom, and independence as the other states."¹ Although the resolution failed, the same principle was incorporated by Jefferson in the Ordinance of 1784. This, however, remained inoperative for three years, when it was superseded by the memorable Ordinance of 1787. That law retained the colonial principle of equality of new members with the old; the western states were to be admitted to Congress in due season "on an equal footing with the original states, in all respects whatsoever."² Such a principle could be implemented only if the land were held in trust for the inhabitants until they should be ready to form their own government and build their commonwealth.

There were those, however, who still held to the older view of empire. The Federal Convention of 1787 was divided on the question as it was raised in connection with the problem of admitting new territories. Gouverneur Morris, author of Article IV, Section 3, of the Constitution, which gave Congress power "to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States," wrote afterwards:

I always thought that when we should acquire Canada and Louisiana, it would be proper to govern them as provinces and allow them no voice in our councils. In wording the third section of the fourth article I went as far as circumstances would permit to establish the exclusion. Candor obliges me to add that had it been more pointedly expressed a strong opposition would have been made.³

But with the re-enactment of the Ordinance of 1787 by the first Congress under the Constitu-

tion, the republic reached the first settlement of its colonial problem. The possibility of Old World imperialism was forestalled by the positive decree that it should not be re-established in the American West.

The first real test of the new principle came with the acquisition of Louisiana in 1803. Here was a territory partially inhabited by an alien people, whose language, religion and laws were at variance with those of the United States. Yet the treaty of cession contained the important provision that the people of Louisiana should be incorporated into the Union as citizens, fully protected by the Constitution.⁴ Nine years later the state of Louisiana was admitted into the Union upon an equal footing with the other states.

Thus the march of empire across the continent proceeded on the principle that the national domain must be held in trust for the inhabitants until they should be ready to form states and come into the Union. The constitution followed the flag; as fast as the land was occupied and the "colonies" had a sufficient population, another star appeared in the flag, and the stars were all of equal size and brilliance. With the exception of Texas and California, both of which were admitted as fully organized states, national expansion to the middle of the nineteenth century followed the pattern established by the Ordinance of 1787. The old type of imperialism was deemed incompatible with American democracy.

The annexation of Alaska marked a divergence in the policy. While American citizenship was bestowed upon the inhabitants by the treaty of cession, the promise or implication of future statehood was significantly omitted.⁵ Thus the republic in 1867, while refusing to commit itself to the principle of subject peoples, did embrace the principle of subject provinces. No further annexations of constitutional importance took place until 1898.

The acquisitions incident to the Spanish war immediately posed the question of imperialism.

¹ *Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789, XVIII (1780)* (Library of Congress Edition, Washington, 1910), p. 915.

² *Journals of Congress 1786-1787, VII*, (Folwell Edition, Philadelphia, 1801) p. 62.

³ Morris to Livingston, written during the period of discussion of the Louisiana treaty. Quoted by Senator Platt of Connecticut in a speech of January 27, 1899, *Congressional Record*, XXXII, 55 Cong., 3 Sess. (Washington, 1899), p. 1155.

⁴ William M. Maloy (*Comp.*), *Compilation of Treaties in Force, 1904*, Sen. Doc. 318, 58 Cong., 2 Sess. (Washington 1904), p. 258.

⁵ The treaty stated: "The inhabitants of the ceded territory . . . shall be admitted to the enjoyment of all the rights, advantages, immunities of citizens of the United States, and shall be maintained and protected in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property, and religion."—*Ibid.*, p. 667.

Hawaii was annexed during the war without any statement regarding future status of either land or people. The close of the war saw the further addition of overseas territory, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands, with over 10,000,000 inhabitants foreign to the United States in race, language and customs. It was impossible, therefore, according to prevailing American opinion, to consider these new acquisitions as territories in the traditional sense. Instead it was proposed that they be held as dependent possessions. This would mean the transformation of the republic into an empire.

The McKinley administration had moved logically through the stages of military necessity, strategic demands, and temporary colonial status with respect to Porto Rico and the Philippines. But the traditional American principle opposing imperial rule found immediate and vigorous expression. Political leaders in and out of Congress, the business and cultural circles, even the Republican party itself, were divided on the question. The issue was joined in the Senate as it considered the peace treaty. It was widely debated in the national press. It was declared by the Democratic Party to be the "paramount issue" in the election of 1900. Finally, it was passed upon by the United States Supreme Court in the Insular Cases of 1901. Each contest in turn saw the triumph of the imperial idea, but only after a severe struggle and often by a narrow margin. For example, the treaty was ratified by the Senate with only one vote to spare above the necessary two-thirds majority. Likewise, in the Insular decisions, the Court first ruled against the principle of colonial possessions in the DeLima case, then by another five to four decision reversed its position in the Downes case.

While the United States adopted a program of empire, there developed from it a new colonial policy which differed radically from that generally associated with European imperialism. The strenuous opposition at home and the desire to pacify the insurgents in the Islands led the McKinley administration to search for a colonial formula which would be more in harmony with American tradition. It was found in the principle of the Northwest Ordinance that colonial lands should be held in trust for the inhabitants thereof. In this case,

however, the program did not contemplate the formation of new states to be admitted into the Union. Instead, as the policy was hammered out on the anvil of colonial administration, it assumed the form of immediate imperial rule according to Old World patterns, but it was accompanied with a program of tutelage, looking to eventual self-government as an independent nation.

The new policy emerged during the first years of American occupation. Its development may be traced in the response of the McKinley administration to the anti-imperialist opposition, in the efforts of the military leaders to entice the Filipinos away from the insurgents, in the recommendations of the two Philippine Commissions, and in the statements of such leaders as President McKinley, Elihu Root, and William H. Taft. In a manner typical of the democratic process, the essence of which is compromise, the government was led gradually to modify the newly embraced imperialism by milder practice and significant promises. For example, in the effort to conciliate the Filipino people and also to appease the mounting criticism at home, McKinley issued a proclamation on December 21, 1898, in which he promised a benevolent rule for the colony, a guarantee of personal liberty, and a certain degree of home rule.⁶ This promise was re-enunciated many times in subsequent statements by military and civil authorities.

Shortly after the arrival of the Schurman Commission in the Philippines in March, 1899, a proclamation was issued by that body to the Filipino people. It assured them that

The United States stands ready to accustom them to self-government in an ever increasing measure; and to encourage them in those democratic aspirations, sentiments, and ideals which are the promise and potency of a fruitful national development. . . .⁷

This announcement, while intended primarily to appease the Filipino insurgents, nevertheless contained a new principle with far-reaching implications. The encouragement of nationalism and self-government was not the usual accompaniment of nineteenth century imperialism.

⁶ E. S. Otis, (Major-General, U. S. Army), *Report 1899*, in *U. S. War Dept. Ann. Rept. 1899*, House Doc. 2, 56 Cong., 1 Sess. (Washington, 1899), pp. 355-356.

⁷ The Philippine Commission (Schurman), *Report, 1899-1900 I*, Washington, 1900), p. 4.

That and self-government "in an ever increasing measure" suggested something besides the permanent retention of the colony as a possession.

Henceforth, our Philippine policy proceeded on the basis of implied intent. Elihu Root, who as Secretary of War had personal direction of Philippine affairs, emphasized in his first report the duty of the United States to give the Filipinos "self-government in accordance with their capacity" and "opportunity for education."⁸ When he later prepared the instructions to the Taft Commission he left no doubt as to the cornerstone of the new policy: a guarantee of personal liberty together with a large degree of local self-government. At the same time the instructions revealed an intention to extend self-government upward as the people became fitted for it. The commissioners seemingly were expected to establish a government on lines designed to lead steadily to full self-rule and ultimately to independence if the people should desire it. They were also instructed to establish a system of public education, which was to become the chief instrument in a program of tutelage for self-government.⁹

This program of training formed the distinguishing feature of the new policy. It meant that Filipino officials must work side by side with Americans in what Secretary Root referred to as "clinical instruction" in government. In 1901, the Taft Commission, traveling about the archipelago, organized thirty-four provincial governments, made up of Filipino and American officials. The Commission's report of 1901 stated the program as follows:

The theory upon which the commission is proceeding is that the only possible method of instructing the Filipino people in methods of free institutions and self-government is to make a government partly of Americans and partly of Filipinos, giving the Americans the ultimate control for some time to come.¹⁰

After further discussion of the plan the report then contains the significant statement that the nucleus of Filipinos who are thus trained to

participate in government "will grow as the years go on."¹¹

Equally significant to the development of policy was the establishment of a system of public education, the chief purpose of which was to prepare an intelligent electorate. Even under the military regime teachers had been detailed from the army to a number of schools for the teaching of English to the Filipinos. In 1901 *The Thomas* docked at Manila with several hundred American teachers. After a brief period of training they were dispersed throughout the Islands to inaugurate primary education for the common people. The activities of this advance guard of what later became a virtual educational army constitute an interesting and unusual chapter in colonial history. The school system thus established became the true cornerstone of Philippine policy for the United States. Training for self-government, the avowed objective, would have been impossible to achieve without education. The English language was chosen as the medium of instruction in order to give the Filipinos a common language and enable them to assimilate the American heritage and to "breathe in the spirit of Anglo-Saxon individualism."¹² Such a purpose meant certainly the fostering of a Philippine nationalism which would lead to complete autonomy or national independence.

The formation of this program was the responsibility of the President and those whom he chose to assist him. Two years elapsed after the ratification of the Treaty of Paris before Congress passed any legislation for the Philippines. When it did act, by the Spooner Law of 1901, it was merely to approve the temporary regime already set up by the President. Not until the summer of 1902 did Congress enact a law for the Islands. The basic aspects of the policy, therefore, were determined by the executive branch. William McKinley, John Hay, and Elihu Root formulated its main principles; William Howard Taft translated them into a working system and further elaborated certain features. By the time Congress was ready to consider the Philippine Government Bill the

⁸ Secretary's Report, in *U. S. War Dept. Ann. Rept.* 1899, loc. cit., pp. 24-25.

⁹ Instructions to the Philippine Commission (Taft), April 7, 1900, in *U. S. War Dept. Ann. Rept.* 1901, House Doc. 2, 57 Cong., 1 Sess. (Washington, 1901), p. 74.

¹⁰ Philippine Commission (Taft) Report, in *U. S. War Dept. Ann. Rept.* 1901, loc. cit., p. 19.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

¹² Testimony of William H. Taft, *Hearings Before the Senate Committee in the Philippines in Relation to Affairs in the Philippine Islands*, January to June, 1902, Sen. Doc. 331, 57 Cong., 1 Sess. (Washington, 1902), p. 333.

main outline of policy had been drawn, and the Republican controlled Congress placed no obstacles to their further development.

The Senate hearings on the Government Bill revealed the theory back of the formative policy. In the testimony of Governor Taft and others the essential elements were disclosed. Among those elements, none was more evident than the idea of American tutelage of Filipinos in self-government. Taft re-iterated that the desire of the Commission was "to prepare" the Filipinos, "to train" them, "to teach" them. They were to be taught to respect the rights of the minority, to look at public affairs as a trust, and through practical experience, to learn the technique of governing. These things were necessary first, said Taft, and then they might be allowed "if they desire ultimately—it is in the distant future—to maintain a national government of their own."¹³

On this point, as to when the Filipinos should come into their full inheritance, the Republican party refused to make any commitment. The question of a definitive policy beyond the promise of ultimate self-government for the Philippines became the chief ground of difference between the two major parties on the subject. The various resolutions offered in Congress by Democratic leaders at this time generally called for a declaration of future status for the Islands. The Filipino leaders also desired to fix a time when the implied promise of independence would be fulfilled.

Governor Taft felt that such a request could not be conceded without a disastrous effect on the whole program. A declaration that the Philippines would be given independence or full autonomy at a specified time, he thought, would greatly weaken the central principle, that of tutelage. The pupil might lose interest in his study and begin merely to serve time. In the theory of Republican policy makers, the teacher must be the sole judge of the pupil's fitness for advancement. Moreover, such judgment could

only be passed as certain stages of training and development were reached. While Taft did not use such metaphors, he was sharply aware of the essential conflict between a definitive policy and the tutelage idea. He stated the government's program positively as follows:

It is the duty of the United States to establish there a government suited to the present possibilities of the people, which shall gradually change, conferring more and more right upon the people to govern themselves, thus educating them in self-government, until their knowledge of government, their knowledge of individual liberty, shall be such that further action may be taken either by giving them statehood or by making them a quasi-independent government like Canada and Australia, or if they desire it, by independence.¹⁴

Thus spoke Taft to the Senate Committee in 1902. A year earlier in the Philippine Commission Report, he had raised the question: "How long . . . must this education be continued before real results will be accomplished?" and had answered: "Of course it is impossible to tell. Certainly a generation—perhaps two generations—will be needed. . . ."¹⁵

The significant point is that intent was manifest. By 1902 the formative stage was almost passed. The organic act of that year contained not a word about tutelage or future status. Hence the new colonial policy, if judged only by the constitutional provisions of 1902, would appear virtually as a replica of the Old Colonial System of Great Britain. But the true principles were not to be found in the congressional statute. They were being worked out in the administration of local government in the Islands under American guidance, in the rapidly growing public school system, in the acts of the Philippine Commission, and in the steady growth of a Philippine nationalism, encouraged by American authorities.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 325.

¹⁵ Philippine Commission (Taft) Report, *loc. cit.*, p. 21.

¹³ *Ibid.*

A New Approach to the Survey Course in Social Science¹

CHANCELLOR WILLIAMS

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The introduction of the survey course in American colleges was an attempt by educators to resume, at least in part, their responsibility in guiding the training of youth. The elective system had generally gone too far in attempting to make democracy function on the freshman level, where such freedom was decidedly out of place. Beginners are not competent to decide what courses are of most worth, the order in which they should be taken, or which, if any, are designed to provide the foundation of a liberal education—the original but seemingly forgotten aim of the college itself.²

The emphasis on vocational preparation was placed at beginning points and tended to push general education out of the program. The new job-psychology in America implied that man was to live by bread alone. So the survey course movement in American colleges became highly important precisely because it was a part of a basic program in general education.

But if there was general agreement as to the urgency of the need for basic courses, there was none as to fundamental objectives and,

therefore, insofar as the social sciences are concerned, no general agreement on what should be taught—or why. The courses were started before adequate preparation was made for them. The colleges struck out in different directions, each working out its own program, and generally without reference to what the others were doing. Social science is such a broad field that one may wander around in almost any direction and seemingly justify his course. And “wandering around” is what most of us are still doing. The “peculiar needs of my school,” upon analysis, often turn out to be merely a clinging to an independent localism that ignores the fact that all of us are engaged in the same essential task of educating American youth and, today more than ever before, youth from other lands.

There will be variations as a matter of course, but there is need for general agreement on fundamental objectives and the general character of course content in introductory social science work.³ What constitutes the foundations of a liberal education should be arrived at without reference to the industrial or agricultural character of the community or the state; and, furthermore, the program of studies should not be determined by the racial or nationality character of groups in the school or in the community. This is another way of saying that the essentials of a liberal education, for freshmen and sophomores at least, should be absolute, not relative; and that it is the responsibility of educators to determine and boldly proclaim what these are.

An analysis of the social science basic course work of the leading colleges which reported in the surveys previously referred to indicates

¹ This study has resulted from an effort to improve the work in my own classes at Howard University. The first step, as I saw it, was to find out what was being done in a representative number of leading colleges. The programs of fifteen schools were studied. As I was concluding my survey I learned that Dean Earl J. McGrath, of the College of the University of Iowa, had just completed a similar canvass for publication: *Social Science in General Education*. This excellent and much needed survey covers twenty colleges, five more than mine, but nine of which had been included in my study.

The names of none of the institutions are mentioned in this paper for the reason that the work of no particular institution is being evaluated or criticized. Furthermore, we all seem to be in the same boat. As the head of the Division of Social Sciences of one college put it: “We are all still in the dreamy stage” in developing basic courses in social science. This article merely proposes that we re-examine the field together and, as a working basis for rethinking, it outlines a broader program which indicates how one instructor in the field would approach the work.

² The advisory system was supposed to guide the wise selection of courses, but too often the system was, and is, little more than a mechanical routine in which bored “advisors” merely signed program cards which students had already made out.

³ Earl J. McGrath, *Social Science in General Education* (Dubuque: William C. Brown Company, 1948), p. 286. Dr. McGrath suggested that the various professional associations in social science fields appoint joint committees to deal with these problems. The need is obvious.

that real progress has been made in different directions. This is encouraging. Much ground work has been done and this means that we have something upon which to develop a unified program for all colleges. After twenty-five years of effort there should not be as much diversity in the programs as now exists. In many cases, at present, if the courses were not labelled "social science," one would never be able to identify them as such by the content.

There is confusion. The students are confused and their teachers are not less so. Much of the confusion seems to stem from the widely different objectives and the different kinds of materials used. Some of us are teaching "An Introduction to the Social Sciences" as a survey course in history. The survey course in Western civilization, a history course, is thereby duplicated—the only essential difference being in the titles of these courses.⁴ In other cases, the course is taught as general sociology.⁵

From the beginning of the movement, there has been a very determined effort to develop integrated courses. The outcome, the proponents insist, is "social science," another independent discipline in its own right. Some progress has been made in this direction. But to develop an integrated course in social science on the introductory level seems to add to the confusion, and will continue to do so unless the scheme is carried through on all college course levels, replacing all of the separate disciplines which make up the field of the social sciences. Is this the end sought? If so, why?

I have read various arguments for the integrated course. They perceive something unsound and misleading in teaching sociology, economics, government, etc., as separate, *independent* disciplines. They are separate in fact, but they are not independent. They merely represent necessary divisions of labor in studying different aspects of man and society. That they are interdependent aspects of a single whole should always be stressed, but to develop

integrated courses as though they did not exist as separate disciplines is idle—or so it seems to me. The chapter headings of one such integrated course indicate the nature of the work, the title being "An Introduction to Social Science": (1) Social Behavior; (2) Personal Maladjustment; (3) Delinquency and Crime; (4) Education and Protection of Consumers; (5) Agriculture; (6) Competition and Price; (7) The Family; (8) Housing; (9) Inter-group Conflicts; (10) Population; (11) Technology; (12) Large Scale Business Enterprise; (13) Health; (14) Leisure and Recreation and (15) International Peace.

Now, inasmuch as the subject matter of sociology, economics, etc., is invariably given unitary treatment in separate chapters, the "integration" seems to consist mainly in the mere omission of any reference to the name of the discipline from which the material is drawn. Yet this approach is much superior to that which presents the course as history and uses a general history textbook almost entirely for the work. The former is commendable because it represents a beginning of an independent program for the survey course. This much cannot be said for schools that have followed the easy course of using textbooks designed for history survey courses in Western civilization. In this category the "Introduction to Social Science" generally covers the following:

(1) Prehistoric periods; (2) The Rise of civilization in Egypt and Mesopotamia; (3) Origins of Civilization in Western Asia and the Aegean; (4) Hellenic Life and Institutions; (5) The Roman Empire; (6) Social and Economic Life in Rome; (7) Rise of Christianity; (8) Medieval Civilization; (9) Feudal Society and Institutions; (10) Expansion of Europe; (11) The Industrial Revolution; (12) Rise of Urban Society, etc.

A full-dress defense can be made for this and similar programs for the basic social science course. Indeed, a master teacher in the field could take this very material and develop a reasonably satisfactory course. But neither the social sciences nor the colleges in general are overrun with master teachers. A study of the question would doubtless show that our colleges have more able scholars than able teachers.

The burden of this paper, however, is that our sights are substantially where they were

⁴ Realizing this, a few schools have dropped the survey course in history for the basic social science course, just as though one served the purpose of the other.

⁵ Here again, as in the case of history, some schools have replaced Sociology I with the introductory social science course.

One point of this paper is that the course should not be taught either as history nor sociology *per se*.

in the beginning and need to be raised, that our aims and methods are too diverse and independent, and that a new and broader approach is needed in our decidedly new world outlook.

To deal effectively with our specific task, we need to see the whole of which our society is a part. The proper perspective is suggested by Barzun when it is pointed out that the work of the college is in three, and only three, broad divisions of thought and action: (1) Science; (2) Political and economic problems and (3) Life mirrored in literature, philosophy, religion and the fine arts.⁶

UNDERLYING CONSIDERATIONS IN DEVELOPING THE COURSE

1. Everyone will admit that the students should be the primary consideration, for their needs and society's are the same. But in developing courses of study, the content often indicates that we either do not really know what the needs of students are in our confused world today or, vaguely knowing, we forget them in the actual work of course construction. The fact that most of these basic courses are obligatory places a serious responsibility on both the college and the Division directly concerned. The aims and the quality of the work must justify the fact that it is *required*.

2. The survey or basic course in social science should be the darling child, not the step-child, of the Department or Division of Social Sciences. It should be the major, number one project of the Division for the following reasons:

(a) As the basic course of the other disciplines, it should be organized and developed along lines that attempt to do precisely what its title suggests by really *introducing* the student to world society through the media of the social sciences which mirror various aspects of that society; (b) a carefully developed curriculum, serving as a foundation for later courses in the several disciplines, would not only create a better understanding of the what and why of these fields, but it would strengthen the work of both the Division and the college itself.

3. To repeat, the sights are too low. They should be raised to show the students the mirror

of the world through the various disciplines which make up the social science field. This would introduce them to world society, *not merely to Western civilization*.

If we introduce them to some of the masters of social science or social thought, we would draw from the East as well as the West. The need now is for a world view which includes significant contributions to human society from all of the earth's peoples.⁷

4. The curriculum for the introductory courses should be developed cooperatively by a committee made up of representatives from the departments in the Division. This is a major undertaking, and not a spare-time effort to be squeezed in somehow if and when one can be spared from his classes and other duties in economics, government, sociology, etc. Rather, the Division or Department will have to insist that adequate time be given for the work. For, let us say it again, *to strengthen the basic course is to strengthen the Division*.

5. The teachers of the survey course should be among the very best in the college; for the really constructive work, if any is done, will be done in the class rooms, not in the general lecture hall. The general practice of using assistants should be ended. Indeed, it is one of the tragedies of our college system that freshmen are introduced to college life with generally inexperienced teachers. It is planned that way. It should be just the opposite. The new students' contacts with college life should be with some of the ablest teachers that the institution has.

I am persuaded that the superior teacher is more urgently needed in the lower rather than always in the advanced classes—that is, *if the needs of the students are to be a criterion*. Your truly great professors regard the teaching of freshmen as an honor and an opportunity. But, however this problem may be solved, the immediate fact is that teachers broadly trained in the several disciplines that make up the social sciences are needed for the survey courses. They should be full fledged members of the faculty, with the kind of training and experience that this implies, and not merely assistants or the protégés of this or that department.

⁷ Three schools in my survey are now beginning this approach. Professor Harold O. Lewis also urged this broader view before a meeting of the Howard University faculty, February, 1947.

⁶ Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1945), pp. 171, 172.

6. Some of the colleges covered in this study have made real progress in developing basic social science courses, and they have provided an excellent foundation for further development. *Their materials and their experiences should be pooled in any effort at reorganization and improvement.*

7. Textbooks used for the course which I have examined thus far are inadequate for the broader framework which this paper proposes. It would seem needless to say that they can be drawn upon and used in various ways.

All of this means that the interdepartmental committee will have to do a great deal more than prepare the usual syllabus. A broad survey and the careful examination and selection of the actual teaching materials will have to be made.

8. The new program should provide for more student participation and less lecturing. The weekly and semi-weekly lectures to the entire group means that both the course and the classroom teachers are still too weak. *The real work will be done in the classroom under competent classroom teachers.*

The emphasis here is on competent classroom teachers. For while endless, daily lectures should be abandoned, the other extreme is the wasteful and unprofitable group discussion. The instructor must know when a lecture is necessary; and he must know how to control classroom discussion and direct it in the channels designed to achieve the objectives of the course. This means so many minutes per student in order that all of them may participate in the discussion. This time control eliminates "filibustering" and forces the student to organize his ideas and speak to the point. The value of the contribution to the discussion is scored by both the teachers and the members of the class. Interest runs high; and a new value is put on time.⁸

9. In the suggested program for the social sciences I have introduced religion and ethics as though there were regular social science departments in the college.

As regards religion, broadly conceived, the proposal is that we introduce the students to the major faiths of men—Christianity, Mohammedanism, Buddhism, etc., using documents or

excerpts from the works of the founders to illustrate the origin and development of world-wide religious thought. Indoctrination should be rigidly ruled out here as in other phases of the work. But we should teach what the religions are—what men believe—just as we should teach what democracy is, what Communism is, what Fascism is, and without any attempt to "sell" any of them.

Likewise, in dealing with the several disciplines, our work would be limited to teaching the role of economics, sociology, philosophy, etc., as to what each is, rather than attempting to teach the subject matter of these and other fields. *The course should replace no subject.* History I, Sociology I, Economics I, Philosophy I, Government I, etc., will all be as necessary as ever.

Ethics, however, should be directly taught in the basic course. I feel so deeply on the matter of teaching good manners that it is difficult to discuss it with detachment and without emotion. But it seems to me that an education that fails to include good manners is a failure in fact. So, in an attempt to recapture a little of that culture and refinement which once distinguished the educated from the ignorant in matters of behavior, I would divorce ethics from philosophy and introduce it as *a study of good manners.*

The emphasis would be on good manners in modern society, rather than a study of the Socratics of Plato and Aristotle, or the modern abstract concepts of ethical idealism. This phase of the work would aim at better conduct, better human relations. We are turning out too many "educated" bores—coarse, vulgar and loud-mouthed young people, whose private and public conduct is in no way different from that of the denizens of Goat Alley.

Finally, in regard to the course as a whole, with clearly stated and clearly attainable objectives, I would introduce the student to world society by beginning with his own immediate interest and the segment of that society in which he is now functioning—the college community itself (about which he knows practically nothing from the start and very little at the end); next, his home community through individual studies and reports; and then on to world society through the eyes of history, sociology, government, economics, labor, philos-

⁸This group discussion procedure has been used in my classes with success for the past two years.

ophy, religion, ethics, education, anthropology, geography and psychology.

PART I

WORKING COURSE OUTLINE

(Note: These are suggested ideas to work with in developing the course and not the outline of an already developed course.)

- A. The University Community
 - a. How to study
 - b. How to take notes
 - c. Historical sketch
 - d. Structure and present administration
 - e. Colleges and departments
 - 1. Function and services
 - f. Who's who among the leaders and why
 - 1. Administrative officers
 - 2. Famous teachers
 - 3. Famous alumni
 - 4. Student leaders
 - g. Campus life and opportunities
 - 1. College sponsored organizations and their work
 - 2. Independent groups and their work
 - 3. Fraternities and their work
 - 4. Sororities and their work
 - 5. Athletic activities
 - 6. Other functioning elements in college life
- B. My Home-Town Community (Individual studies and reports)
 - a. How it makes its living—economic activities
 - b. Who runs it
 - 1. Political, religious, educational, business, labor and other leaders
 - c. Political organization
 - 1. How democracy works in my community
 - d. Race relations in my community
 - 1. Points of conflict, if any
 - 2. Work for better relations, if any
 - e. How my family functions in the community

PART II

INTRODUCTION TO WORLD SOCIETY

(Note: Use select group of original documents throughout the course)

- A. Origin and Development of Political Institutions in Western Society
 - a. Theories and principles of government
 - b. Philosophies of government

- 1. The absolute monarchy
- 2. Capitalistic democracy
- 3. Socialism
- 4. Communism
- 5. Fascism

- B. Origin and Development of Social Institutions in Western Society
 - a. The church, the synagogue and other religious institutions
 - b. Economic institutions
 - c. Humanitarian institutions
 - d. Social movements
 - e. The masses and the classes
 - f. The labor movement
 - g. New viewpoints on human relations
 - 1. Racism and theories of race
 - 2. Current problems in race relations
 - 3. Current movements for better race relations and their leaders

PART III

MASTERS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE IN WESTERN SOCIETY

- A. Masters of Social Science (Documents or excerpts from the writings of three of the greatest men in each field)
 - a. History
 - b. Sociology
 - c. Political Science
 - d. Economics—labor
 - e. Philosophy
 - f. Religion
 - g. Ethics
 - h. Education
 - i. Anthropology
 - j. Geography
 - k. Psychology
- B. Introduction to the Social Sciences
 - a. Origin and development of scientific endeavor in the social sciences
 - b. Each discipline as the study of one aspect of man in society
 - 1. Division of labor
 - c. Interrelations of the social sciences
 - d. The nature, philosophy and/or principles of:
 - 1. History
 - 2. Political Science
 - 3. Economics
 - 4. Philosophy
 - 5. Religion
 - 6. Ethics
 - 7. Education

9. Anthropology
10. Geography
11. Psychology

PART IV

INTRODUCTION TO WORLD SOCIETY

(Continued)

- A. Origin and Development of Political Institutions in Eastern Society
 - a. China
 - b. Japan
 - c. Russia
 - d. Africa
 - e. India
 - f. Arab lands, etc.
- B. Social and Economic Institutions in Eastern Society
 - a. Leaders in the respective countries
 - b. The fields of their contributions
 - c. Documents or excerpts from their writings to illustrate their contributions to social thought

PART V

WORLD SOCIETY TODAY

- A. Local Economic and Social Problems
 - a. What these are in your community
 - b. Efforts at solution
- B. National Economic and Social Problems
 - a. Efforts at solution
- C. World Problems Today
 - a. How these were attacked in the past
 - b. Current efforts at solution
- D. Role of the Social Sciences in Dealing with the Problems of Our Times

* * *

Such then is the broader framework within which I would develop the course. It is still a pioneer undertaking, calling for educational

statesmanship. Beginning with the student's own immediate environment, the course would undertake to develop an understanding of, and also a sense of, identity with the world community. It would tend to correct the fallacy that all non-western cultures are primitive and backward, and thereby lay the foundation for better human relations among the various ethnic groups of citizens at home, first of all, and then among the peoples of the world.⁹

If the fundamental objectives of the course can be agreed upon, the materials to use could be more easily determined. What we call the course—whether "Survey," "Core," "Basic," or "Introduction to Social Science"—is not too important. But the kind of work we do is important.

Some schools have adopted definite methods of teaching the course, such as the case method, the problem, value judgment, etc. Probably no one method should be rigidly adhered to. The good teacher will use several, changing as the occasion demands, and forever exploring for better results.

The vastness of the field is no excuse for failure to organize the work along lines that give less ground for the complaint that too much ground has to be covered, resulting in a "scattering and smattering of information and principles."¹⁰

⁹ Russell M. Cooper, *Better Colleges—Better Teachers* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1944), pp. 19, 20. Professor Cooper points out that the first step in the development of a course is to have "objectives precisely defined and imprinted on everyone's consciousness."

¹⁰ Arthur Naftalin, "Minnesota Approach to the Basic Course in Social Science" in Earl J. McGrath, *Social Science in General Education*; pp. 276, 277.

The Library Program in the Junior High School

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That the library program is, or should be, the center of both the curricular and the activity programs of the junior and senior high schools is quite commonly recognized by many secondary school administrators, supervisors,

and teachers. That it too often fails to function as such is also true.

A complete presentation of the importance of the school library and the manner in which it can function as an integral part of the school

program would include the methods of teaching the use of library tools, devices to stimulate reading interest, an outline of the relationship of a well planned remedial reading program to the library, and an analysis of the relationship of books and other reading material to each phase of the school program.

The purpose of this paper is to present some practical ideas about the specific function of the library as a necessary part of the social living program in the eighth grade of the junior high school. The same ideas are adaptable to the seventh and ninth grades.

The social living program is the foundation of the whole curricular program. Units have been worked out as guides in presenting the year's work. The outline presented here considers each unit and attempts to show how the library and the social living classroom work can be integrated.

The eighth grade social living units are:

- Unit I—Orientation
 - Unit II—Our Heritage of Freedom
 - Unit III—Development of the West
 - Unit IV—Territorial Possessions of the United States
 - Unit V—Effect of the Air Age on Life Today
- A. Unit I—Orientation

1. Social living objectives for this unit: general acquaintance with, and greater appreciation for, school and education on the part of students; relationships and responsibilities of students to their community; self evaluation including the writing of autobiographies; general overview of the year's work.
2. Library integration with this unit—biography
 - a. The presentation of biographies and autobiographies
 - (1) Book review by the instructor with readings from the book.
Example: *Dr. George Washington Carver*, by Shirley Graham, is a good biography to illustrate the value of an education, even at great cost.
 - (2) Sampling of introductions to some good biographies, with class discussion to stimulate interest.
 - (3) Informal discussion about biograph-

ical introductions which students have noted in their books.

- (4) Presentation of factors that make biography worth reading.

- (a) Most important factors to emphasize: aroused and sustained interest; factual authentic information with interesting incidents.

b. Class assignments

- (1) Each student assigned one good biography or autobiography.
- (2) Written work—well planned paragraph or paragraphs, based on the general idea as to why the person whose life story was studied was worthy of biographical honor, or why he should not be given that honor.
- (3) When most of the class have read, or are well started in their biographical reading, the different types of biographical subjects are presented and discussed. Following this, the class is divided into groups according to the type of book so that oral reports will have logical relationship. Each student is to relate one incident that has to do with the person's contribution to the world.

(a) Types of biographies

Those written about people who were important members of their communities. Example: *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*, by Carl Sandburg.

Those who have made good in spite of great handicaps. Example: *Syrian Yankee* by Salon Ritzk.

Those who are or were geniuses in their line and put their special skills or abilities to good use. Examples: *Dancing Star*, by Malvern; *The Gay Poet*, by Nolan; *Boys' Life of Edison*, by Meadowcraft.

Those whose courage or determination marked them as outstanding people. Examples: *The Courage and the Glory*, by Floherty; *Narcissa Whitman*, by Eaton.

Those who responded to the

wishes of their friends to tell the stories of their lives because theirs had been an outstanding example of achievement through persistence, courage, etc. Examples: *The Story of My Life*, By Helen Keller; *Up From Slavery*, by Booker T. Washington.

B. Unit II—Our Heritage of Freedom

1. Social living objectives for this unit: to help students to gain a better understanding and appreciation for their country through a study of men and events which shaped our nation; to lead students to know something of the relationship of early American history to present-day living; to trace the story of early America through a study of informational material about people and events.

2. Library integration with this unit—Fiction.

- a. Presentation of books of fiction in general and in particular those relating to this unit.

- (1) Informal discussion about different types of fiction, the teacher presenting examples.

Types and examples:

Historical—*Silver for General Washington*; biographical—*Lone Journey* (Roger Williams); adventure—*Tom Sawyer*; mystery—*The Mystery of the King Turtle*; animal—*My Friend Flicka*; ordinary living experiences—*Little Women*; humorous—*Peterkin Papers*; vocational—*Doctor Ellen*; love story—*Pride and Prejudice*; present day story of special interest because of some event—*Then There Were Five*.

- b. Presentation of the general plan of a fiction story illustrated by reading from books or by making reference to them.

- (1) The setting of the story.
- (2) The time of the story, stated either exactly or indicated in some way.
- (3) The introduction of main characters as they appear (sometimes discussed before they appear), and their continual development throughout the story.
- (4) A series of incidents leading to the climax.

- (5) The conclusion usually following the main incident rather quickly.

- (6) The part played by description of people and places.

(Note: It is important to call attention to the fact that some types of books have little or no climax, but the general plan holds.)

c. Assignments

- (1) The reading of one historical or biographical fictional book and a general fictional work.
- (2) Brief, clear-cut oral presentation by each student of the place, time, first impressions of characters in the book finished or being read.
- (3) Written paragraphs in which two or more of the main characters are developed from the first impression to the complete picture.
- (4) Series of two or more incidents listed leading up to main one, which is to be summarized.
- (5) Oral presentation of one interesting incident to the class.
- (6) Expressions of opinion by students: "I think my book will (or will not) stand the test of time because . . ."

3. Library integration with this unit—The short story

- a. Presentation of the short story as compared with the book of fiction.

- (1) Explanation by the teacher with suggestions by the class as to similarities and differences.

- (a) Same general types of short stories as fiction books—historical, biographical, adventure, mystery, animal, ordinary living experiences, love stories, vocational, recent happenings, or a combination.

- (b) Essential differences—much briefer presentation, less description, fewer incidents, those incidents which are included streamlined.

- (c) Important factors to observe about the short story—careful choice of words and the ar-

rangement in sentences because a few words must tell a great deal; incidents briefly but clearly told; action quick and steady, but not as deliberate as in a book of fiction.

b. Class assignments

- (1) Read one good short story from an approved library book or magazine.

- (a) Copying from it of five particularly good descriptive sentences—a person or animal character, a place, a scene, a time description, an impression (weather, feelings, etc.).

- (b) Presentation to the class of one short story briefly following this form—introduction (setting, time, characters), first important incident, main incident, conclusion.

- (2) Teacher-class participation in the reading of a well-written story (probably by the teacher) and discussing its good qualities and weaknesses.

- (3) Writing of some original thought (which might be later fitted into a story) such as a character sketch, description, incident.

4. Library integration with this unit—History books

a. Presentation of types of history books with illustrations

- (1) General.
- (2) Travel—general, Europe, Asia, Africa, South America, North America—United States, Pacific Northwest.
- (3) Biography (already discussed but reviewed here).
- (4) History, especially of the United States and the Northwest.

b. Teaching of outlining as a tool for efficient organization of factual material.
Outline form:

I.

A.

1.

a.

(1)

(a)

c. Class discussion about the best way of obtaining information from histories

- (1) Detailed information.
- (2) Specific information obtained by scanning.
- (3) Information obtained from reading to help understand some problem.
Example: How did the early colonists in Massachusetts regard education?

d. Class assignments

- (1) A three-minute talk to the class using an outline previously prepared, about one interesting historical incident in connection with social living or library reading.
- (2) An outline of some event of historical importance read in a library book.

C. Unit III—Development of the West

1. Social living objectives for this unit:

- a. The same as for Unit II, a, b, c, d.
- b. To show how the development of the Middle West and West was a natural outgrowth of early America.
- c. To consider these factors in relation to westward expansion—development of inventions, expansion of industries as needs arose, improvement of travel, development of education, scenic attractions, need for more room.

2. Library integration with this unit—Books of drama

- a. Presentation of drama material showing how the development of the Middle West and West was a very exciting drama itself and how each phase of it has inspired writers to dramatize incidents or present panoramic pictures.

- (1) Introduction to different types of drama with examples of well written dramas to illustrate.

- (a) The skit—an incident dramatized. Example: Narcissa Whitman and Marcus Whitman arrive at Fort McLaughlin.

- (b) The play—one, two, or three acts each related to the other and dramatizing some important event or events. Example: "Young Mac at Fort Van-

couver," a play based on the book of the same name.

- (c) The pageant, a more elaborate production of a series of incidents or events, usually by episodes, often including the major events over a long period of time. Example: "The Development of the Willamette Valley."

- (d) The musical play or pageant, the same as (b) or (c) but with music and dancing skillfully blended with the drama. This type of drama is often on a large scale. Symbolism, legendary stories, actual happenings, dancing, elaborate and color-stage settings, costuming, all contribute to the production.

b. Class assignments

- (1) Reading of one play, preferably one which is related to the social living unit on westward expansion or the previous unit, and a brief summary of it to the class.
- (2) Planning of a miniature pageant, using books in the library.

3. Library integration with this unit—Social Science books

- a. The presentation of social science books in relation to the development of the Middle West and West, with the "carry-over" to the present day.

- (1) Explanation by the teacher and discussion by the group regarding various kinds of social science books with examples:

- (a) Social problems: *America's Social Problems*, by H. W. Odum.
- (b) Political science and civics: *Democracy at Work*, by E. Finscher.
- (c) Community life: *Exploring Your Community*, by M. P. Keohane.
- (d) Immigration: Example: *Island Gateway*, by Eric Bender.
- (e) Economics: *Money-Go-Round*, by John Floherty.
- (f) Natural resources, Conservation: *Conservation of Amer-*

ican Resources, by Charles N. Elliott.

- (g) Law: *National Government and International Relations*, by Frank A. Magruder.
- (h) Government administration: *Inside the F.B.I.*, by J. Floherty.
- (i) Education: *Vocations for Boys*, by Harry D. Kitson.
- (j) United States Government: *Outline of the Government of Oregon*, by James Baynett.
- (k) Commerce and transportation: *Sky Highways*, by Lloyd Travers.
- (l) Manners and customs: *Cues for You*, by Mildred Ryan.

4. Library integration with this unit—Useful arts books

- a. Presentation of different types of useful arts books.

- (1) Inventions. Example: *The Story Behind Great Inventions*, by Pedro Lemos.
- (2) Medicine. Example *The Story Behind Great Medical Discoveries*, by Elizabeth Montgomery.
- (3) Engineering. Example: *The Boys' Book of Motors, Engines and Turbines*, by A. P. Morgan.
- (4) Agriculture. Example: *Fruits of the Earth*, by Jeannette Lucas.
- (5) Home Economics. Example: *Clothing with Character*, by Hazel T. Craig.
- (6) Manual training. Example: *Things to Make for Farm and Home*, by S. R. Cook.
- (7) Industrial chemistry. Example: *Plastics*, by Bernard Wolfe.
- (8) Manufacturing. Example: *Fiber to Fabric*, by Maurice Potter.

b. Class assignments

- (1) Reading of one chapter in a useful arts book, outlining contents (not in detail) to hand in; selection of one interesting section of that chapter to tell the class.
- (2) Listing of the following information about one book in each group of the useful arts books—title, author,

publisher, copyright, date, first chapter title listed in the contents, two other chapter titles.

D. Unit IV. Territorial Possessions of the United States

1. Social living objectives for this unit: to help students gain a greater appreciation for the people in our territorial possessions through a study of their living conditions, their occupations, their education, their possibilities; to help students begin to feel a sense of responsibility toward the maintenance of cooperation and mutual helpfulness.

2. Library integration with this unit—Travel and transportation books.

a. The presentation of travel and transportation books.

- (1) Characteristics of a good travel book—information woven with human interest incidents; people, either individuals or groups with whom the traveler comes in contact; word pictures that make the reader interested; not too many details; a fine mixture of beauty, unpleasant but realistic glimpses, pathos, humor.

(2) Types of travel books.

- (a) General travel—many sections of the world, with usually only short accounts of each section; either separate sections unrelated or from place to place as a traveler would tell his story. Example: *Seven Seas on a Shoestring*, by Hugh Long.
- (b) Travel in America—places of scenic interest or commercial importance.
- (c) Travel in Alaska, Hawaii, Philippines, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, Panama Canal Zone, Pacific Islands.

b. Class assignments

- (1) The reading of one travel book or an acceptable part of it and its presentation to the class, following this form: title, author, one interesting place described rather carefully, the presentation of one person in the story.

- (2) The selection of one interesting place in one of the colonial possessions for research reading, the research to include at least one magazine article, encyclopedia information, a chapter or section from a book, a pamphlet article. Bibliography is to be included giving source, chapter, pages.

3. Library integration with this unit—Books of religion

a. Presentation of the Bible and Bible stories.

- (1) Different translations of the Bible: American Revised, 1945; American Revised, 1915; Moffatt; King James.

- (2) The presentation of the Bible stories as representative of the most beautiful in literature, translated in all languages, read in every country.

- (a) Poetic quality of some passages. Example: "The Lord's Prayer"; "Twenty-third Psalm."

- (b) Stories of people and events which are characterized by beauty, simplicity, convincing reality. Examples: "The Life of Christ"; "Story of Ruth."

- (c) Fiction inspired by Bible stories. Examples: *The Robe*, by Lloyd C. Douglas; *The Other Wise Man*, by Van Dyke.

- (d) Travel stories in the Bible. Examples: "The Life of Paul."

- (e) History stories in the Bible. Example: The history of the Jews.

- (f) Biography, the inspiration for some of the world's masterpieces of art. Example: "Christ and the Twelve Apostles."

E. Unit V. Effect of the Air Age on Life Today

1. Social living objectives for this unit.

- a. To acquaint students through reading and study with people in different parts of the world, now so easily reached by air.

- b. To show the relationship of present-day living to the development of our coun-

- try and the part transportation has played.
- c. To bring together in review the expansion of America from colonial simple living to complex living in an age when America is a world power.
2. Library integration with this unit—Books on Commerce and Transportation
 - a. Guided use of newspaper articles; the use of reference books.
 - b. Presentation of books on commerce and transportation, and atlases.
 - (1) Comparison of distances, time required to reach various places as explained in atlases, books, pamphlets or reference books.
 - (2) The importance of air travel in World War II, as explained in books.
 - (3) The importance of advancement in recent years in keeping with air travel improvement.
 - (4) A study of the stories in any daily newspaper which are concerned with air travel. The makeup of the typical newspaper story can very well be presented here.
 - c. Class assignments
 - (1) The reading of one chapter from a book on air transportation, or an article from a magazine, with a written synopsis of the reading.
 - (2) Oral presentation of a newspaper article.
 3. Library integration with this unit—Science books
 - a. The presentation of science books
 - (1) General science books which present a general picture of developments in the scientific world of today in comparison with the early years of our country.
 - (2) Presentation of special kinds of science books with examples—astronomy, physics and electricity, chemistry, biology, geology, zoology.
 - b. Class assignments
 - (1) Selection of one science book to be scanned and reported to the class in this way: title, author, publisher, general plan of the book as observed from the "Contents" and the "Preface."
 - (2) Review of one chapter or section.
 - (3) Selection of one magazine article to outline, using the *Readers' Guide* to select the article.
 4. Library integration with this unit—Fine arts books and continued use of magazine material
 - a. Presentation of fine arts books
 - (1) Discussion of the relationship of air age development to greater development of the fine arts: more leisure time, greater variety of modern conveniences, great range of pleasures easily obtainable.
 - b. Presentation of different types of fine arts books
 - (1) General books that give a glimpse of the artistic and recreational world.
 - (2) Art. Examples:
 - (a) Painting: *Pioneer Art in America*, by Bailey.
 - (b) Sculpturing: *Creative Hands*, by Doris Cox.
 - (c) Modeling: *Arts and Crafts*, by Marguerite Ickis.
 - (d) Designing: *Fashion Drawings*, by Hazel Doten.
 - (e) Landscaping: *Careers in Commercial Art*, by Biejelius.
 - (f) Home planning: *Creative Hands*, by Doris Cox.
 - (g) Art appreciation of pictures: *Pictures to Grow Up On*, by Katherine Gibson.
 - (3) Music. Examples:
 - (a) Appreciation: *At Home With Music*, by E. Spaeth.
 - (b) Music stories: *Aida*.
 - (c) Biographies: *Living Musicians*, by Eton.
 - (d) Operas: *Hansel and Gretel*, *Aida*.
 - (e) Musical plays, operettas, pageants: *The Forest Court*, by Whitehead.
 - (4) Recreation. Examples:
 - (a) Plays and movies: *Making the Movies*, by Benedick.
 - (b) Games: *The Fun Encyclopedia*, by Elvin Harbin.

- (c) Entertainment: *Let's Have a Party*, by Edna Woodworth.
- c. Class assignments
 - (1) Selection of one book from either music, art or recreation to scan and report to the class following this form: Title, author, general plan of the book, summary of one chapter or part of a chapter.
 - (2) Written paragraphs relating an interesting incident in the life of an artist, musician, sportsman, or entertainer.
- 5. Library integration with this unit—
 - Poetry books
 - a. Presentation of poetry books
 - (1) Modern poetry to a great extent an expression of the swift moving life in an air age. Examples:
 - (a) Interests of people: *Sea Fever*, by John Masefield. *The Bridge*, by Don Marquis; *The Thinker*, by Berton Braley.
 - (b) Trends of the times: *A Prayer for This House*, by Louis Untermeyer; *Work, A Song of Triumph*, by Angela Morgan; *The Locomotive*, by Emily Dickinson.
 - (c) Nature. *Treasures of Life*, by Henry VanDyke; *Birches*, by Robert Frost.
 - (d) Simple every-day things: *Plowman at the Plow*, by Louis Golding; *Madonna of the Flow-ers*, by Amy Lowell.
 - (e) Historical interests: *The Pioneer*, by Arthur Guiterman.
 - (f) Patriotism: *The American Flag*, by Joseph Drake
 - (g) Feelings of emotion: *In Flanders Field*, by John McCrae.
 - 6. Library integration with this unit—
 - Philosophy books
 - Note: This type is presented briefly since junior high school students have little contact with philosophy books.
 - a. Presentation of philosophy books—explanation as to the nature of philosophy books in relation to daily lives of young people; discussion about philosophies of their parents and themselves.

Parties, Like People, Must Pay for Their Sins

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The post mortems, self-analyses, and apologies for the defeat of the Republican party last November continue to appear with such frequency that writing them would seem to have become a sort of major "minor sport" of the American people. Samuel Lubell, in *The Saturday Evening Post* for January 22, 1949, asking "Who Really Elected Truman?" concludes rightly that the Democrats are now the majority party. The implication in that fact—although he did not say so—is that Dewey's campaigning probably had little to do with the Republican disaster. Still another diagnostician, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr., asks in the same journal, for January 29, 1949: "Does

the Republican Party Have a Future?" His conclusion would seem to be that if the party is ever again to rise it must become more liberal under new leaders and yet not be a "Me-too" organization.

As a registered independent who voted for Dewey (with great reluctance, it is true), I should like to suggest that if one is to understand what has happened to the "Grand Old Party," he must get a sense of perspective. Admittedly, few Republicans can acquire such a view because it is difficult for a loser to see things clearly and without prejudice.

If one looks at the situation from the vantage point of perspective, it becomes clear at once

that the Republican party is suffering from a disease which is not new; it is an ailment with which the so-called better people have been affected at various periods in the past. Long years of power and success give to a party a feeling that it alone knows how to rule, and a conviction that if the inexperienced common people get into office they will run the government into the ground. This disease, which is called smug complacency or self-righteous superiority, affected the aristocrats in 1800 when Federalists predicted the worst if the rabble led by Jefferson won office. By 1828, the rabble of 1800 had become aristocrats who shuddered when unwashed frontiersmen and mechanics spilled liquor over the White House carpet and trampled upon the furniture.

By 1860, the Southern planters, who had been dominating the Democratic party, felt the same way when an unpolished bucolic character, named Lincoln, came into office supported by what they called the greasy mechanics of the East and the mudsill farmers of the West. In turn, the Republican party built up its coterie of superior people who were sure they alone knew what was good for the country. These refined individuals who lived on the right side of the tracks were chilled to the bone in 1896 at the Bryan movement which, in their milder moments, they called anarchism or even mass insanity. By 1933 Republicans simply assumed that they had acquired a right to rule the country because they represented the wealthy, the educated, and the people of quality.

When, in 1933, the down-and-outers came into power, the superior people experienced a deep-seated spasm of horror and disdain that continues to this day. To the historian this spasm is not new: he has seen it gripping Federalists, National Republicans and Whigs, Southern slaveholding Democrats, and McKinley capitalists. It is caused in part by hurt pride and can be humanized into these words: "We are the better people. We have the experience. Why should we be deposed from power when we pay the taxes and have the brains? It is inadmissible that propertyless ignoramus who are the dregs of society should get into office and make us pay the taxes which they levy."

This refrain was heard countless times in the 1930's when the denizens of upper class pent-

houses ate out their hearts with disgust and shame as they observed the antics of a government which was working for, and under the control of, no-accounts, lazy bums, and leaf-rakers. And to add insult to injury, a renegade to his class, a Hyde Park aristocrat, was the instigator of the Bacchanalia.

Perhaps this pattern—*i. e.*, aristocrats bemoaning the fate which deposed them and placed in the seat of power a set of nondescripts who *have* nothing and *know* nothing—can be further illustrated in the economic sphere. The owning class has always protested when forced to recognize as equals its former inferiors. Thus the proud planter was scandalized at the monstrous revolution which enfranchised his former slaves. With the freedmen holding office at a time when many of their former masters were disfranchised, the humiliation and bitter ire of the planters have to be studied to be really understood. Things were indeed out of joint and the times topsy-turvy.

Transpose this situation of the 1860's to the 1930's and a similar confrontation is evident. Change ex-slaveholder to factory owner and ex-slave to union laborer, and the similarity is obvious. The average owner of a factory in the 1930's, when ordered to meet his own laborers on an equality and bargain collectively with them, was so infuriated that he refused to obey the law. What did common laborers know about his business? Had these uneducated upstarts ever met a payroll? Was the business not his and did he not have the right to run it as he pleased? Many said they simply would not meet their employees on such terms, and added that if a workman was dissatisfied with his job or his wages, he was free to quit and go elsewhere. Like the freedmen of the 1860's, the laborers of the 1930's had the voting power because they were more numerous than their betters. And so, when the employer was forced by decision of the Supreme Court to deal with his workmen, he felt outraged at the unconscionable actions of "those socialists" at Washington, especially of "That Man in the White House." The humiliating anger that seared his soul was not different from that of the haughty planter who had to make labor contracts with his former slaves, now his political equals.

Let us take a look at the Democratic party and learn what happens when a party commits crimes, makes political blunders, and in general fails to justify its position of power.

From 1801 to 1861 the Democratic party, at first under Jeffersonian, then under Jacksonian, and finally under Southern planting leadership, had been the dominant party in the country. Most Americans were normally Democratic; the opposition got into office only when some catastrophe like a panic occurred or when the leading party was divided by factionalism. Towards the end of its period of power, the Democracy became involved in the slave question when its Southern leaders used the party machinery for the purpose of defending the South's "peculiar institution." Then in 1860-1861, the Southern wing of the party got tied up with secession and rebellion. During the Civil War some of its Northern members became Copperheads, and others were charged with outright treason.

The Democratic party emerged from the Civil War with a load of crimes that was large enough to sink any party; its sins included slavery, secession, rebellion, copperheadism, treason, and others. While thousands of Democrats had fought loyally for the Union and hated slavery, that fact did not redeem the good name of the once powerful party of Jefferson and Jackson. Its opponents, the Republicans, were able to win election after election by wringing the blood out of the bloody shirt. As though the Democratic party was not carrying enough sins, it committed new crimes in the postwar era when many of its members embraced greenbackism and when the party as a whole succumbed to the Bryan silver malaria. Meanwhile, its cup of woe had been filled to overflowing when the party got the blame for the Panic of 1893.

So suspect was the Democratic party that, even though its candidate doubtlessly won the presidency in 1876, he was not permitted to take office; it was simply not time for the candidate of a rebel, traitorous party to be President. Almost a quarter of a century passed—twenty-four years to be exact—before the party was permitted to place a President in office; in 1884 its candidate, Grover Cleveland, won by a narrow margin of about 1,100 votes in New York. Cleveland won again in 1892, but it was

not until 1912 that another Democrat was successful. Woodrow Wilson took office in 1913, not because the Democrats were a majority party, but because the Republicans were split between Taft and Roosevelt.

For seventy-two years (1861-1933) the Democratic party was a hated, distrusted minority party which won office only when the dominant Republicans became too corrupt or were divided. The party paid a fearful price for its sins of the 1860's.

In the same way, for seventy-two years the Republican was the respectable party, the majority party. It was composed not only of the loyal defenders of the Union, but also of the propertied people who had wealth and position.

Republican luck, however, began to run out in the 1920's when the upper class leaders lost their grip and when the party failed to maintain its ability and knack at governing. Like the Democrats in the 1860's, the Republicans in the 1920's committed a series of "crimes" that have placed the party under a shadow ever since. They prevented American adherence to the League of Nations; they gave to the country the oil scandals of the Harding administration; they did nothing to decrease the inflation in the late 1920's, inflation which helped to bring on the depression of 1929; and they were helpless to do anything about the depression after it started. In fact their acts, like the foolhardy tariff of 1930, furthered the depression instead of checking it. As if to cap the climax in showing how far removed from the common people the party leaders were, the veterans in the bonus army were gassed and run out of Washington. Of course, thousands of Republicans objected to all these political "crimes," but to no avail. The party as a party suffered just as seriously in popular esteem as did the Democracy in the 1860's.

With the party of the best people evidencing a total inability to govern, the hated Democrats were offered their chance and took it. For the first time in almost three quarters of a century one might be a Democrat, in the North at least, without being considered a rebel, a traitor, a soft-money fiend, a promoter of panics, or a wild-eyed internationalist. Except in the eyes of the displaced people of quality, the Democratic party had become respectable again.

If one looks, therefore, at the present situation of the Republican party from the long view, he perceives that its problems shape up pretty much as they did for the Democrats after the Civil War. Sins having been committed, they must be paid for. In this case the price is defeat and a long period of retirement from office. Whether it will require seventy-two years for the Republican party to become respectable again is for the future to decide. However that may be, the Democrats will have to win only one more victory to keep the Republicans out of the presidency as long as the Democrats were out of that office after 1861.

Perhaps the moral is that, in party as well as private affairs, chickens come home to roost.

Because there are more common people than people of quality in the country, that party which controls the most labor votes is likely to win. Republican victories after 1860 are to be attributed in no small degree to the fact that the growing industrialism created an ever-increasing labor force. These workingmen, helpless at first because they had few unions and handicapped later because their unions were weak, normally voted as they were told by their Republican employers. As long as the unions were puny, it was no trick at all for the boss to inform his employees before election that unless the Republican candidates were successful there would be no work on the day after election. Sometimes the desired end was accomplished by threat of firing, although such a threat was seldom needed. After 1893 all the employer had to do was to recall to his employees' minds the soup kitchens of that panic and blame the Democratic administration for the hard times. Any person over forty can remember the days when workers, even though they might dislike the Republican candidates, were swung into that party column by being reminded that they had families to feed, that the money of the country was in Republican hands, and that if they wanted good times to continue, they must keep the GOP in office. Moreover, there were always plenty of newly arrived immigrants who were anxious to displace American citizens. It was a neat system and it worked until the Great Depression.

One of the first things the Democrats had to do was to keep the labor vote on their side. By means of section 7a of the NRA and later

of the Wagner Act, the Democratic party "stole" the labor vote right from under the noses of Republican employers, who could do little except to make verbal protests because the Great Depression had started under Republican auspices and because so many laborers were out of work. The old power to control men at their work was lost because so many men were out of work. The last important time when an employer tried to frighten his workers into voting Republican was in 1936 when Henry Ford put into pay envelopes a statement demanding that his men vote for Landon. The act backfired.

While Truman, in 1948, owed less to labor union votes than did the Democrats elected to Congress, it is still true that labor in the main remained loyal to the party which did so much for it. Those who ask whether the Republican party has a future are really asking: How can the Republican party expect to become a majority party again until and unless it weans the labor votes from the Democracy?

Still another element which the Republicans must win if they hope to return to their former status is the independent voters. The independent of today faces about the same kind of problem as his counterpart in the Republican party faced in the era after the Civil War. The misdeeds of the Democrats in the 1860's for all practical purposes nullified the two-party principle. During the corruption of the Grant period it might be expected that honest, independent Republicans of good intent would swing over to the other side; that, in fact, is the way in which the two-party system is supposed to function. But no Republican could stomach the Democratic party so soon after the Civil War. So hated was it that not even a Republican who was disgusted with his own party could bring himself to vote Democratic. As a result, any member of the GOP who did not like what was going on in his own party was limited to the following choices: he might hold his nose and vote Republican, a decision which many took; he might go fishing on election day, as some did; or he might vote for a third party, as was done in 1872 by the idealistic wing of the Republican party. It was not until 1884 that a Democratic presidential candidate garnered enough independent Republican votes to put him over.

The independent faces something of the same problem today. Like a decent Republican of the 1870's, he sees things going on in the Democratic party which he does not like: he disapproves of extra terms, he knows that one party should not be in power too long; and he sees a weakening of the two-party system. Yet he is doubtful whether voting Republican is the answer. He asks himself whether that party has sloughed off its sins of the 1920's; whether it has regained its ability to govern; and above all, whether it can be trusted again. The independent of today who feels he cannot as yet trust the Republicans, has, like his counterpart of the 1870's, three choices: he may hold his nose and vote Democratic, as many have done; he may stay home on election day, or, as 683,382 voters did last November, he may go to the polls but refuse to vote for any presidential candidate; or he may join a third party. Those under the Wallace banner chose the third alternative. They had about the same effect upon Truman's victory as the Liberal Republicans had upon Grant's reelection in 1872.

A third element which the Republican party should go after, if it is to regain its previous status, is the Democrats of the South. After all, except perhaps for civil rights, there is no fundamental difference between the beliefs and attitudes of the average Northern Republican and the average Southern Democrat. The proof is that when Republicans go to the South to live they are likely to become Democrats without much of a shock or jar to their political sentiments. By the same token, when Southern Democrats move North to live, they easily find a home in the Republican party. In the United States Senate, Northern conservative Republicans usually cooperate with Southern conservative Democrats. Thurmond, consciously or not, was Dewey's flanker in the South. Both groups tend to be conservative and both spoke for the propertyholders.

During the election campaign last fall, Senator Edward Martin of Pennsylvania invited Southern Democrats to join the Republican party. Therein, however, is one of the problems which lie in the way of unity. Reconstruction hatreds are still strong enough—despite 1928—to prevent any Southern Democrat from joining a party calling itself "Republican." If

the Republicans were willing to give up the name, unification under a new label might be easier.

* * *

The answer to Senator Lodge's question as to whether there is a future for the Republican party is: "Don't be silly. Of course there is." However, its future for some time to come is likely to be that of a minority group; or, to put it another way, as in England, His Majesty's Loyal Opposition, which becomes His Majesty's Government only when the dominant party gets too corrupt or splits into factions. Whether Senator Lodge and other Republican leaders would accept a more or less permanent minority status for their party is the question. When they ask whether it has a future, they probably mean: Does it have a chance to become the majority party again?

It is the desire to be dominant once again which constitutes the real danger to Republicanism. Will a party which for so many years enjoyed a position of power resign itself to a subordinate role? Is Republican pride so hurt that the party would rather give up the ghost than to suffer ignominiously as the secondary party? Even to hint that the party might prefer death to an inferior position would sound ridiculous—considering the millions of voters who are still Republican—were it not for the fact that lugubrious statements to the effect that there is no future for the party are still being heard months after the election. Indeed some good Republicans whisper that the party may as well disband and form a new organization with other opponents of the Fair Deal.

The normal amount of post-election despondency and sour grapes, which one expects from the defeated candidates for a few days after election, have scarcely lifted. Generally speaking the loser revives rather quickly and becomes hopeful of winning the next time; or he philosophically expects and accepts defeat, as for almost three quarters of a century was true of the Democrats. The Democracy got used to defeat and lived on to fight and win on another day. Can the Republicans, who have never in their history known such a long period of defeat, learn to be equally as philosophical? Whether the fact means anything or not, it is to be noted that their predecessors, the Whigs, could not live on in defeat.

It must be said in frankness that the Republicans, used to long periods of supremacy, are poor losers. Particularly was this fact brought out last November. Certain, beyond peradventure, that they could win this time with "That Man" out of the way, Republicans suffered a heartbreaking disappointment for the fifth and worst time. As many crestfallen party members said: "If we can't beat Truman with two splinter parties in the field against him, can we expect ever to defeat anybody?"

The numerous self-analyses that are appearing in print point in the same direction. They are gloomy and do not give the party much hope. To the onlooker who does not wear his partisanship too seriously, it is a sight too pitiful for words. A once powerful and confident organization whimpering and grovelling in despair and self-reproachment is not a pretty picture. Indeed it was such a pitiful sight that, on the day after election, one got no fun out of kidding Republicans. They were too deflated, too unbelieving, too wounded in spirit. They had lost their spunk.

Lamentations by Republicans ever since election day bespeak the fact that the party's *amour propre* has been badly shattered. Five successive defeats, especially the last one, have done something to Republican *esprit de corps*. It hurts; and it hurts bitterly that Miss Columbia once again has turned down the handsome, wealthy, refined suitor and chosen instead a common everyday Joe who has neither good looks, nor wealth, nor refinement. In 1940 and 1944, there were extenuating circumstances that gave hope: after all, "The Champ" was still running, and besides, the war issue in both contests made it difficult to unseat the party in power. With the death of President Roosevelt and the end of the war, how could the people do otherwise than to return to office the party which knew how to rule, the party of substance and ability, the party of sound business principles? The people, however, did decide otherwise.

This last rebuff has caused a traumatism among Republicans. A wound has been inflicted which promises to have a long standing effect upon the sensibilities of party members. Unless one learns how to adjust himself, he cannot suffer mental shock after mental shock without permanent bad results. So far, the Republicans

have not learned how to adjust themselves. The disappointment consequent upon the refusal of the American electorate to accept the services of the better people is fast leading to a feeling of morbid inferiority. From a superiority complex to an inferiority complex is an easy step.

Whether this trauma will bring on a sort of grandiose self-immolation and self-dissolution of the party no one can say. Even if it does not, there will be an important impact upon the country. A party, or a class, which has ruled a long time and which feels it deserves to rule again cannot be pushed into a secondary position without a change in the mental outlook of its members. Such a situation could produce a narrow provincialism, hard-bitten and introspective, such as that of the Federalists, who vegetated gloomily and sulkily in New England for many years—gloomily because they knew they were a minority, and sulkily because they were sure they were more fitted to rule than were the second-raters in office at Washington.

It might also create a defensive sectionalism, like that of the Bourbon Democrats of the South after 1865, who, remembering their prewar glories, contrasted their former position with their present fate—disfranchised, reduced to penury, and forced to cope with Negroes. Their mental agonizing led to results which have become part of the warp and woof of American political life—the Solid South, Jim Crowism and race friction, colonialism, particularism, and filibustering by Southern senators against civil rights bills. The effect of the trauma caused by the South's experience during Reconstruction still exists.

It is much too early to say what will be the results of the deep hurt which has been suffered by Republicans. One hopes that the party will not continue as a mere provincial or sectional faction which looks out from its private preserves with jaundiced eyes while the rest of the country progresses. On the other hand, if it disbands, another opposition party must be formed because the American political system works best with two strong parties.

The country needs the Republican party. We have a right to hope that it will show the same dogged will to live that characterized the minority Democrats during their long period in purgatory. Is the GOP less tough-minded than the Democracy? Is it to be said of Republicans that

they must either rule or die? I daresay that even Democrats would be sorry to see the Republican party supinely lie down and die.

The first thing the Republican party must do is to rid itself of that self-assumed superiority which made it a vehicle for the upper classes alone and which, up to about 1929, made it possible for Republican employers to manipulate their workers' votes for the benefit of the owners rather than for the benefit of the laborers. To win once again a widespread support from the common people, especially from labor, is not going to be easy; it may require years.

At all events, the lack of rapport with the mass desires has caused the party to lose its mass base. It has plenty of money, plenty of leaders, plenty of newspaper support; but it lacks votes. Since it lost the labor vote in the 1930's and even much of the farm vote in 1948, the Republican party is like a Latin American army: there are many generals and too few soldiers. The party has little chance of ever winning back mass support unless it convinces the common people that it is a party for all Americans and not a party merely for the people of quality.

The diatribes which leading Republicans made against the common people who were on relief during the 1930's have paid off—but paid off in votes for the Democrats. The insults which the upper classes heaped upon the unfortunate jobless in the 1930's will not be easily forgotten. It is going to take time and patience for the Republican party to win back the votes of the masses who were smeared with infamy and covered with epithets like "loafers,"

"bums," and "boondogglers." People who were denounced as parasites are not going to turn around a few years later and love the Republican party when it needs votes. Republicans must learn the simple lesson that a man is a man whether he is a wealthy industrialist, or a common workman, or a man out of a job. After all, each has only one vote. Like Federalists, Whigs, and Southern planters, Republicans have suffered severely from the disease of self-assumed superiority.

* * *

Who knows what the future will bring? Some time, sooner or later, the Democrats will make enough mistakes and commit enough "crimes" to sink themselves. The longer a party remains in power the surer the minority may be that its time is coming. Four years after 1928, when the Democrats suffered their worst defeat, they got their chance. The most promising opportunity for the Republicans will occur if and when the country gets into a panic. Until that comes, it is quite possible that the Democrats may ride the crest of the wave.

Adversity teaches lessons and it also gives time for repentance. Until such time as they are called upon to replace decrepit Democrats, the Republicans should be using that precious interval for the purpose of undoing among the common people the evil impression made upon them in the 1920's and 1930's.

It is quite likely that the Republican party is slated for a long stay in purgatory, but it need not give up hope. Only that party dies which loses the will to live, even though it may have to live for many years as a minority.

The Teachers' Page

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Printers' deadlines, as one knows, wait for no man. As of this writing therefore, which is in March, I cannot report the reactions to the first issue of the Teachers' Page which appeared in April. In view of this, I hope that I will be excused for browsing among things pertaining to teachers and teaching.

In the last issue, some reference was made to a study claiming that teachers tend to be more neurotic than persons in other professions. In anticipation of some comments on this subject, I would like to say a few words on a topic related to this whole problem. It concerns the stereotyping to which teachers have been sub-

jected in the past. There is little need for elaboration of the well known characterization of what in China has been regarded the noblest profession. We can remember with ease cartoons, jokes, reminiscences, novels, and motion pictures that were not too flattering to the person regarded *in loco parentis*. Once in a while there would be a novel or a movie like *Good-bye Mr. Chips*, which portrayed the fine and noble qualities of teaching. But even *Good-bye Mr. Chips* stereotyped the mold of men along certain long established traits few of us would cherish. Generally, the old concept of the teacher, whether man or woman, was that he was shy, meek, frustrated, and not too well integrated regarding the realities of life.

This was the past. How about the present and the future? In the opinion of the editors of *Scholastic* magazine, there is a change going on. In the teacher section of the March 2, 1949, issue, there was an article entitled "Pretty Wonderful"—referring to the teacher of today. The article describes the pre-atomic age female classroom boss as wearing "steel rimmed glasses clamped on a rough-hewn, American Gothic stone face; her unwaved hair wound in a tight knot; no rouge or lipstick; the dress on her slab-sided, ramrod frame cut to a pattern required for orphanage attendants fifty years ago." The man teacher is cast in a similar vein—wearing "Hoover collars, knobby-toed shoes, and tight, ill-fitting coat of a Dickens" character. "He squinted at the world over the tops of his glasses—a petty, puny dictator punishing his students in bitter, sniveling revenge against society."

Were teachers really that way? How many of us would still answer that description? The *Scholastic* article states that we are experiencing a change in the characterization of the teacher. It cites as evidence such pictures as "Apartment for Peggy," "The Boy with Green Hair," and "A Letter to Three Wives." Radio programs, like "Our Miss Brooks" and maga-

zine articles, according to *Scholastic*, are also helping to change the American conception of the typical teacher.

Is there room for optimism? Are the press, the radio, and the movie portraying to the American public the "professor" in more sympathetic garb? We might ask to what extent we ourselves are responsible for the opinion the public has of us.

Sometimes it would seem that teachers are unaware of their own powers. I don't mean that we should begin a program of indoctrination in our classrooms concerning our virtues. Even if we did, unless our action lived up to the ideals of ourselves, indoctrination would hardly be successful. No, by our power I am referring to ourselves as educated individuals. Knowledge is supposed to be power. It can be, if it is utilized constructively and not allowed to dissipate in mere complaining and griping. Of all the professions, teaching probably has the greatest number of individuals who are gifted with the ability to talk and write. Certainly the number of doctoral dissertations in education and the number of educational periodicals testify to our "gift of gab." Perhaps the mistake is that we do not utilize the right channels to make ourselves heard. Every newspaper is an open forum to any one who wishes to be heard. So are many of our magazines. If there are injustices to education, if there are false characterizations of teachers, should we not become more militant (verbally at least) and make use of our abilities to correct any false impressions? Perhaps we ought to go even farther and begin a campaign of selling ourselves. The American Medical Association is none the worse for it. Of course propaganda to be effective should be subtle.

This is the last issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES before the summer holidays. We hope that your plans call for pleasure and recreation and some thinking about the Teachers' Page. Again, we wish to extend the page to your thinking.

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago 11, Illinois

Filmstrip

Use Your Library. By E. Ben Evans. 77-frame filmstrip. \$5.00.

Mr. Evans is supervisor of library service in the Kern County Union High School District, Bakersfield, California. In preparing this filmstrip, he sought to teach junior and senior high school pupils to appreciate the school library and to instruct them how to use it.

Records

Folk Tale Records. Five double-faced 12-inch records. 78 R.P.M. Single records: \$3.00 each; set of five: \$14.00.

The records present five humorous, fanciful folk tales. The titles include: *The Frog*, a Spanish folk tale, and *Schnitzle, Schnotzle and Schnootzle*, an Austrian Christmas folk tale, both narrated by Ruth Sawyer; *Br'er Mud Turtle's Trickery*, an Uncle Remus story, narrated by Frances Clark Sayers; a *Paul Bunyan Tale* and a *Pecos Bill Tale*, both narrated by Jack Lester.

Young America Films, Inc.
18 East 41st Street
New York City 17

Air All Around Us. Prepared under the technical supervision of Dr. Gerald S. Craig, Teachers College, and Dr. Helen Warrin, Newark Board of Education. One reel. Sound film. Running time—10 minutes. Price: \$40.00 per print.

Designed for the middle elementary school grades, this film illustrates the expansion and contraction of air, air pressure, compressed air, and other related concepts.

Judy Learns About Milk. One reel. Sound film. Running time—10 minutes. Price: \$40.00 per print.

This film tells the story of Judy, a little girl, who visits a small dairy farm. There she sees how the cows are fed, kept clean, milked and how the milk is cared for from the farm to her

home. The content is suitable for primary grade units in the social studies.

Understanding Baseball. One reel. Sound film.

Running time—10 minutes. Purchase price: \$40.00 per print. Rental from state, university or commercial film library.

Unique because it explains the game from the spectator's rather than from the player's point of view, this film illustrates the composition of the team, scoring, fouls, and common rules of courtesy for the spectator.

Filmstrips for Elementary School Science Classes: Individual ones at \$3.50. Set of four, \$10.00. Each is based on a Y.A.F. elementary science motion picture already available.

Magnets

Day and Night

Electricity

What Makes Rain

Films

Five 16 mm. one reel films. (No price mentioned):

The Steam Turbine

Traces the historical development of the steam turbine and explains the principle of the modern steam turbine's operation. Suitable for high school and college science classes.

The Steam Engine

Illustrates the development of the steam engine from its origin to the modern steam locomotive, explaining the principle of the latter's operation. Adapted for use by elementary and high school science classes.

The Principle of the Generator.

The principle of electro-magnetic induction involved in the operation of the electric generator is explained for elementary and junior high school students.

The Microscope and Its Use

Concerned with the microscope used in the typical high school science laboratory, this film explains its fundamental parts and gives the basic rules for its operation and care.

How Do We Get Our Power

Designed for upper elementary and high school social studies classes, this film tells the story of the sources of power which include wind, water, fuel, explosives and the atom.

The House I Live In. 16 mm. film.

With Frank Sinatra as its star, this film's plea for racial and religious tolerance won an Academy Award in 1946. Distributed on a non-profit basis its proceeds have been distributed among eleven organizations designated by the Fair Employment Practices Committee.

New York State Youth Commission
30 Lodge Street
Albany 7, N. Y.

Families First. 16 mm. Sound film. Two reels.

Running time—17 minutes. Producer: R.K.O. Pathe, Inc. for the New York State Youth Commission. Terms: Offered free for theatrical use in New York State.

Families First is concerned with the relationship of the home to the happiness and normal growth of children who require as essentials security, affection, recognition and new experiences.

This film supplemented by discussion is suitable as an educational medium for parents and high school and college students and is being made available for nationwide use.

Society for Visual Education, Inc.
100 East Ohio Street
Chicago 11, Illinois

In addition to its own productions, which include slides and filmstrips, the Society distributes aids issued by other producers.

*Social Studies Filmstrips**The World—Past and Present Series*

Seven filmstrips are included in this series. Made in cooperation with the University Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, these strips deal with the Joint Expedition to Ur of the Chaldees, Ur in the Time of Abraham, Men of the New Stone Age, Men of the Old Stone Age, Egyptian Mummy, Life of the Eskimo, life of the Plains Indian.

The price for the set of seven black and white filmstrips, with captions and subtitles, in Picturol file box is \$21.00.

Canadian Regional Geography Series.

Twelve filmstrips illustrate the interests, land, agricultural and industrial activities of the Canadian people. The price of the set of twelve black and white filmstrips with manuals in Picturol file box is \$33.00.

Holiday Filmstrips Catalog. Free

Filmstrips and 2" x 2" Slides

The Story of Thanksgiving (in Color)

The price of this color filmstrip with captions and manual is \$5.00.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

COMMUNIST PARTY MEMBERS AS TEACHERS

During the past winter a great deal of public interest was aroused over the case of the six University of Washington professors whose fitness to teach was challenged because of past or present attachment to the Communist party. Hearings were held before a faculty committee on academic freedom. Two of the professors admitted present membership in the party; in spite of a recommendation in their favor by a majority of the committee, they were discharged. Three others who had previously re-

signed their party memberships were placed on two years' probation. The sixth man, who refused to say whether or not he was a Communist and whose case was complicated by other issues, was discharged, as recommended unanimously by the committee.

As in any case where a question of teacher tenure involves political or social beliefs, the issue is not an easy one to decide. There are usually strong arguments pro and con and it is extremely dangerous to be dogmatic and say, "No person who thinks or acts thus-and-so shall be allowed to teach in a tax-supported institu-

tion." For that matter, it is equally illogical to go to the other extreme and declare that a teacher's beliefs or actions have no proper bearing on his right to teach. The reasonable attainment of academic freedom in a democratic society lies somewhere between these extremes and its definition probably must be made in each case on its own merits and by the application of ordinary common sense and justice. Whether the case in question was settled on such a basis has become a matter of considerable controversy and of no little importance to teachers in all public schools.

In its issues of February 26 and March 5, *The Nation* presented two articles giving the points-of-view of both sides in the Washington case. John L. Childs of Teachers College upheld the action of the University of Washington authorities, while Carey McWilliams opposed it. Both presentations were well-made and are worth some analysis.

Professor Childs pointed out that the right to teach under a democratic society is not an unqualified right. Teachers must be judged by their scholarship, teaching ability, regard for their pupils, and their loyalty to the values of a free society. "The members of a democratic society have their allegiances and duties as well as their rights, their responsibilities as well as their freedoms, their disciplines as well as their privileges." Not even a democratic society can afford to give direct aid to those who are seeking by conspiratorial means to overthrow it and assist the political purposes of a foreign nation. There is a limit beyond which tolerance and freedom become suicidal and absurd. What so many "liberals" forget is that "liberty" has two faces. With the liberty of free speech there is also the liberty of refusing to listen; with the liberty of attack there is also the liberty of self-protection. In other words, democratic principles do not require that we do more than tolerate the presence and overt attacks of our enemies; we need not also hand the would-be assassin a knife and bare our breasts to make his stroke easier.

Professor Childs bases his support of the Washington action on the assumption that the Communist party seeks to overthrow the government and democratic society of this country and is acting under the direct control of a

foreign power. He quotes the unanimous resolution adopted by the National Commission on Educational Reconstruction of the American Federation of Teachers:

The Commission believes that membership in the Communist party is not compatible with service in the educational institutions of the United States. . . . The Communist party has demonstrated by its deeds over a period of years that it functions as a disciplined and conspiratorial agency to advance the interests and the policies of the Soviet Union. Membership in this authoritarian political movement necessarily involves each Communist in practices that are hostile to the fundamentals of our democratic way of life, and that also negate devotion to truth and to those principles of disinterested inquiry which are the essence of scholarship.

Professor Childs adds evidence from official party sources to show that party membership implies strict obedience to its principles and purposes and active aid to its program. That this program may require the stifling of truth and free thought even in the fields of art, music, literature and science has become amply evident. Professor Childs holds, therefore, that a *bona fide* Communist party member has, by the act of joining, declared himself an enemy of democracy and untrustworthy as a teacher in any field, since he may be called upon to repudiate scholarly truth in the interests of party discipline and dogma.

In presenting his side of the case, Mr. McWilliams avoids defending the Communist party as a bastion of truth and liberty and concentrates his argument on the point that to condemn teachers for submitting themselves to a discipline that may impair their scholastic integrity is illogical. He says that our teachers are just as firmly bound by the tenets of a capitalistic society as Communist party members are by communist doctrine, and ridicules the distinction between the right of a teacher to believe in Marxism and his right to join the Communist party. He claims that this is merely a sophism to defend the attack on men whose beliefs were anti-capitalistic, and that it will be but a short and easy step from condemnation for party membership to condemnation for liberal or socialistic thought. He cites the

recent discharge of Tucker P. Smith, Socialist nominee for Vice-President, from the Olivet College faculty as an example. No doubt if space had permitted he could have mentioned hundreds of other examples of teachers who have lost their jobs because their political beliefs have been unpopular with the authorities who employed them. Unfortunately this has happened all too often.

In examining the matter as presented by Professor Childs and Mr. McWilliams, it is difficult to see where the latter has succeeded in answering Mr. Childs' points. To say that the discharged professors could not be shown to have actually engaged in biased teaching as a result of their party membership is merely begging the question. Nor does pointing the finger of scorn and accusation at an accuser ever constitute a valid rebuttal to a specific charge. The fact remains that there is a real difference between holding anti-democratic personal beliefs, on the one hand, and voluntarily joining an organized and foreign-controlled group pledged to overthrow the Constitution, on the other.

The Communist party is not an American political party. It is a Russian party with branches in other countries which work under direct orders from Moscow; one of its basic principles is the necessity for the violent overthrow of all non-Communist governments. One who joins it espouses in fact and by implication its purposes and its leadership. We may not approve of the man who believes in free love and certainly we would not willingly employ him as a teacher for the young, yet we permit him to hold his private beliefs on the subject and even expound them to those willing to listen; when he runs off with his neighbor's wife, however, we punish him. So it should be with academic freedom. The teacher who adopts an unpopular political doctrine but maintains an open mind and scholastic integrity should be free to teach if he is competent; but the teacher who by his own deliberate action allies himself with forces which are pledged to anti-democratic activity at all costs surely forfeits his right to be at the same time a leader of democratic society. It is hard to see, in fact, how he could wish to keep his position, except for ulterior purposes. It would be sheer hypocrisy otherwise.

NOTES

Information about the Summer Session (July 5-August 13) at Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y., indicates that social studies will play an important part in the program. There will be a workshop in which teachers may engage in projects such as course-of-study preparation, textbook selection, reading lists, audio-visual materials and test construction. Several courses will be offered on the history and culture of special areas, including Russia, Germany, Latin-America, and the Far East. The structure and problems of the United Nations will be studied and in connection with the general social studies program the First Annual Conference on American Foreign Policy and World Affairs will be held from July 22 to July 28. This will consist of a series of talks, discussions and panels in which men prominent in international affairs will participate. Of particular interest to New York State teachers will be a six-hour course in New York State Cultural, Social and Economic History given in conjunction with the New York State Historical Association. The first two weeks will be at Cooperstown, N. Y., as part of the Cooperstown Seminar in American Culture, and the remaining four weeks at Colgate as part of the workshop mentioned above. Information about any of these courses may be obtained from the Director of the Colgate Summer Session.

Another type of summer conference from which social studies teachers may profit is The Summer Institute for Social Progress, held at Wellesley, Massachusetts, from July 2 to July 16. This is not a course for credit but a conference for mutual discussion of a general theme. The topic this summer is "How Can We Reconcile Liberty and Social Controls?" Particular effort is made, through scholarships, to include among the 200 or more participants people from foreign nations and from all economic levels. The purpose is to bring about through an exchange of views and experiences a wider understanding of other people and of the main topic in particular. A detailed program may be obtained from Dorothy P. Hill, Director, 14 West Elm Avenue, Wollaston 70, Massachusetts.

Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, will conduct a workshop in Character and Citizenship Education during the second term of

its summer session from July 18 to August 26. The purposes of the workshop are to bring together those interested in developing such a program for junior and senior high schools and to evolve a syllabus and guide for the course for use in teacher training institutions.

Goddard College, Plainfield, Vermont, will hold the New England Workshop on "Good Schools and Good Teaching." It is open to any adult interested in education. The workshop will discuss the child, his growth, counselling, and the building of a school program based upon principles of learning and human relations.

The University of Minnesota announced in March the inauguration of a new national magazine, *The American Quarterly*. Its function will be to present articles of a "speculative, critical and informative nature on a cross-section of American problems." Among those in the first issue are: "American Influences on Contemporary Italian Literature," by Elio Vittorini; "The Reputation of America Overseas, 1776-1816," by Merle Curti; and "The Salzburg Seminar," by Henry Nash Smith.

The Department of Public Information of the United Nations has issued a number of bulletins which will be of value to social studies teachers and therefore are summarized briefly here. One bulletin gives a bibliography of twenty-nine miscellaneous non-official publications about the United Nations suitable for schools and colleges. Another is a selected list of official documents and publications of the United Nations, currently available; prices, descriptions and other fact are given. A bulletin of particular value to schools is that entitled *What To Get and Where To Get It*. It seeks to answer many of the questions frequently sent in to the Department of Information. For example, there is information about where to buy United Nations and member nation flags and how to display them; how to obtain information on the costumes, songs, dances, customs, peoples and cultures of various countries; and how to set up correspondence contacts with children or adults in foreign countries. Names and addresses are provided of agencies which will promote edu-

cational and religious contacts, or give information about exchange teacher and student possibilities, and about student tours. This bulletin also tells how to get information about such things as mailing lists, names of delegates, the political views of member nations on pending questions, atomic energy, specialized United Nations agencies, and other matters.

Other bulletins give addresses of the embassies, consulates or official information services of the various member states; a checklist of publications by the United Nations specialized agencies; and detailed data about staging model United Nations meetings, complete with floor plans and methods of procedure. Free copies of any of these bulletins may be secured from the Section for Lecture and Educational Services, Division of Special Services, Department of Public Information, United Nations, Lake Success, N. Y.

It is worthwhile at this point to call particular attention to one small pamphlet published by the U. N. Department of Public Information. It is the "Universal Declaration of Human Rights"; its publication number is 1949.I.3, and the price is ten cents. Adopted by the General Assembly on December 10, 1948, it deserves the fullest possible attention in all our social studies classes. This statement of principles, brief and phrased in remarkably simple and straightforward language, comes nearer to being a summary of what man has been striving for through the ages than any other document ever agreed upon by the representatives of most of the nations of the world. It is a noble ideal which commits its signatories to a common standard of recognition of human dignity. That none of the nations so committed may ever fully conform to it may be freely admitted, but mankind has made a great step forward when the political representatives of its foreign states can agree with such unanimity on the basic rights of man. This declaration belongs in every school, to be read, pondered and discussed; it may some day come to be recognized as the greatest single achievement of the United Nations.

Book Reviews and Notes

Edited by DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

Youth Comes of Age. By Wellington A. Pierce. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. xiv, 400. \$2.60.

The McGraw-Hill Book Company's American Home and Family Series presents *Youth Comes of Age* by Wellington A. Pierce, Head, Social Studies Department, Woodrow Wilson High School, Long Beach, California, as another publication in what will be a "five-foot shelf" of books, pamphlets, leaflets, reprints, etc., dealing with the life adjustment problems of today's youth.

The guidance counselor, functioning in his duty of "seeing through Johnny and seeing Johnny through" has at his disposal a wealth of printed matter, much of it excellent, which may be recommended to his advisees with a view to assisting them to gain insight into their adjustment problems. Guidance is monitory, not mandatory, and the guidance function is best discharged when the individual is supplied with the information and counsel he needs in order to form his own decisions, in the best interest of himself, his family and society.

The present text is written in an easy style, with simple vocabulary. The numerous drawings and photographs are clever and arrest attention to points lending themselves to graphic portrayal. End-of-chapter bibliographies are annotated and well-prepared; they should guide interested readers to excellent parallel materials. Of novel and significant value is the list of visual aids given on pages 389-394. Films are listed by chapters to which most applicable. Previewing (a routine "must") is suggested in order to adjust films to the maturity levels of high school pupils. The author appears to have profited richly from his thirteen years of class discussions which furnished the basis for the present writing.

The book deals concretely with the important experiences and problems confronting the teenager growing into maturity. A pedagogical method of proven value, the case study technique is used to present a personal problem and

its solution. Cases are discussed with candor and from various points of view. The legitimate role of the several "parent-surrogates" in the adolescent's life is well-portrayed. Nebulous verbalisms are avoided; real life persons are seen in interaction with associates and environment.

Boy-and-girl relationships, selecting a life-mate, attaining maturity, the predictive factors in marriage, and the family circle are major topics which form the heart of the book.

As long as we have many thousands of cases of reduced pupil efficiency in our schools; mild and severe situational neuroses engendered by emotional thwartings in school and home life; personality maladjustment on a wide-spread scale; roughly one-third of general illnesses stemming from psychosomatic causes; as long as one-third of the Nation's youth of draft age is rejected because of psycho-physical defects, books such as Mr. Pierce has written will be sorely needed by our adolescent youths, teachers, counselors, school personnel in general, and by parents.

When confronted by the typical problems which every normal adolescent meets in his life career, the timely reading of Pierce's *Youth Comes of Age* should give much insight and helpful counsel to youths. Its worth as a guidance reading for personal adjustment should be unquestioned.

ROBERT N. WALKER

State Teachers College
West Chester, Pennsylvania

The Child and His Welfare. By Hazel Fredericksen. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1948. Pp. viii, 318. \$3.75.

Miss Fredericksen has approached this work with a background of knowledge gleaned from rather wide research in the field of child welfare, from personal contact with capable workers in rural as well as urban sections of many states, and from eight years of experience as a representative of the United States Children's

Bureau. To this has been added the thinking on this subject by the modern youth who have been members of her classes at the University of California. She has been prompted to this endeavor, no doubt, by a desire to procure sympathetic understanding and assistance for today's children in their various needs, to offer suggestions to welfare workers in their important task, and to make both the *needs* and the task better known to the general reader.

The book is comprehensive in scope, but brief in its treatment of certain phases of the child-welfare field. To some readers, explanations may appear to be given with dictionary terseness; to others, the very conciseness will have a special appeal because of the possibility of gaining thereby at least a bird's eye view of the whole field. The author makes no claim to complete coverage of any portion thereof. To accomplish that would require additional volumes. However, pertinent supplementary readings are suggested at the close of each chapter.

The material is well-organized. The general topics include: The Child and His Welfare, The History of Child-Welfare Work, Safeguarding Family Life, Guardianship and Protection, Substitute Care, Unmarried Parenthood, Need for Special Services. Among the chapter headings are these: Basic Factors of Child Welfare, National Interest in the Needs of Children, Meeting the Needs, How Various Agencies Contribute, Financial Aids for Maintaining a Child in His Own Home, Safeguarding His Health, Child-Welfare Work and the School, The Child and Religion, The Child and Recreation, Employment Protection for the Young Worker, Children in Need of Guardianship, Children Who Become Delinquent, Foster Home, Day Care, Institutional Care, Adoption, The Exceptional Child, The Child in Rural Areas.

While offering suggestions for developing a welfare program for children, the author regrets the "lack of common concepts in social work," but remarks hopefully that the social welfare movement is still relatively young.

As a sampling of the work of public agencies, the accomplishments of those in Alabama, Indiana, Mississippi, New Hampshire and Oregon are described. In the discussion of private agencies, a detailed summary is given of the rise and growth of the Chicago Orphan Asy-

lum; the Diocesan Bureau of Social Service at Hartford, Connecticut, a pioneer in organized Catholic Charities; the Children's Service Bureau, Shreveport, La.; the Jewish Children's Bureau, Chicago; and the Ryther Child Center, Seattle.

"The Children's Charter" developed at the 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection is included. The book is fully indexed.

The Child and His Welfare should prove to be a handy reference book for the busy counselor or social worker, and a useful textbook for the student in the welfare field.

SISTER MARY GRACE

Hallahan Catholic Girls' High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Age of the Great Depression. By Dixon Wecter. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 362. \$5.00.

Heralded as the final volume of the definitive "History of American Life," *The Age of the Great Depression* may as suitably be considered the dedicatory number of a new series, the name for which has not, as yet, flashed upon Clío's canvas. Titles suggested from other quarters have been "The Wave of the Future," "The Road to Serfdom," and "The Turning Stream." Although it is doubtful that Mr. Wecter would accept as true the implications raised by any of these, it is with something of this spirit of prophecy that he analyses an age.

The same felicity of expression which marked Professor Wecter's (American Literature, UCLA) *Saga of American Society* and *When Johnny Comes Marching Home* is not absent from his interpretation of the age of Roosevelt. He has minted many new characterizations, some of which may continue: "the obligato of pacifism," "the nuclear tyranny of city life," "the pathology of power," to mention only a few.

Yet the chief merit of his book does not arise from its literary success but from the dynamic philosophy of government which underlies each page and paragraph of *The Great Depression*. Democratic it is, but each reader must assess for himself its special direction. In the words of Wecter, "Whether the New Deal would turn out to be Utopia or myopia only the future could tell."

Thus, the constant theme is the sheer adaptability of the American people and their government through ten long years of the locust. And, in Professor Wecter's analysis, "The Hundred Days" minify the great transition. Consequently, the theme song quickly becomes that of a most frequently elected President whose leitmotif may be identified by its few bars from "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" Indeed, the "magic" initials FDR serve as a focus of integration for the many currents which Wecter is called upon to unite.

Nor is the author of *The Hero in America* inclined to throw an indiscriminate halo around the head of his subject. He begins with the much quoted remark of Walter Lippmann that, in the year of the great election, Franklin Roosevelt was "no tribune of the people . . . no enemy of entrenched privilege . . . (only) a pleasant man, who without any important qualifications for the office, would very much like to be President." (p. 50).

But, lo, the "synthetic champion" quickly begins to talk of "priming the pump," "forgotten men," "money changers in the temple," and, above all, the "conquest of fear." Damned on Park Avenue, soon he was being toasted in the squalid shacks of Southern share-croppers and in the humble huts of "Hovertowns." Thus, Wecter's analysis of the historical circumstances which brought this unique environment into being is worth repeating:

. . . A scion of William James's Harvard, he took pragmatism for his political tool, and the mind of America in this era of bewilderment, flux and transition gave its hearty indorsement. . . . That the New Deal had to attempt so much so hastily—achieving brilliant successes and a few patent failures—arose in no small measure from the need of rekindling that Lamp of Progressivism which had shone so bright in the day of the first Roosevelt, Taft and Wilson, but had gone out in the excitement of the Great Crusade and had never been relit in the stagnant air of the twenties. . . . (pp. 298-299).

Chapter headings quickly show the scope of *The Great Depression*. "From Riches to Rags" makes the setting; "Change of Command," "The Hundred Days," and "Unions on the March": set the tempo; philosophers will seize

upon "Youth in Search of a Chance," "Age in Quest of Security," and "Reading, Writing and Revolution." "Rendezvous with Destiny" suggests an evolutionism which renders the aftermath at Pearl Harbor not an isolated phenomenon but part of a long-range and well-documented historical cycle.

Since *The Great Depression* is to stand as the thirteenth volume of "The History of American Life" it seems curious that the publishers have not seen fit to bind it in uniform style with the preceding numbers. The format, however, is the same and the type font selected is unusually readable. The "Critical Essay on Authorities," which has characterized the series, is included as a final chapter and to many this will become one of the best parts of the book.

Even the jacket is quite useful to symbolize the era. My daughter, age 12, remarked that the declining curve graph suggested the initial descent of a roller coaster. As everybody knows, this "fun ride" gains its momentum by a swift descent from a summit laboriously reached by the aid of a chain and cog. The remainder of the trip is occupied in conserving this energy by the use of studied grades and secondary ascents. Finally, however, the ride does come to an end at the ticket window. There are many similarities between 1929 and the age of twenty years after. Are we again ready to start a downward surge? Is it possible to construct an economy without the lifting power of cog and chain? And are we doomed forever to a configuration of "boom and bust?" Mr. Wecter does not attempt to answer these questions.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University
Salem, Oregon

American Opinion on World Affairs in the Atomic Age. By Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. and Sylvia Eberhart. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. vi, 152. \$1.50.

A major problem posed for educators is the teaching of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship that accompany its privileges. With the challenges of atomic war, world citizenship and the continued "cold war" with Russia this matter becomes increasingly important.

Through the medium of an extensive public opinion poll, patterned after methods used by the American Institute of Public Opinion, and

an intensive poll using the interview technique, the committee on Social and Economic Aspects of Atomic Energy of the Social Science Research Council attempted to determine the opinion and information of citizens of the United States in regard to atomic energy and its relation to world affairs. On the basis of this survey and other available polls Cottrell and Eberhart present their evidence.

The findings were built around the polls taken before and after the bomb tests at Bikini, when all channels of communications were focused on this event. The results reveal the lack of comprehension by those polled (and thus projected through the general public) of the importance of atomic energy and the resultant effect it has had in thrusting the United States into world leadership.

To those unacquainted with what constitutes public opinion this book presents some illuminating remarks. To those who are unfamiliar with the low level of functional information held by the American citizen about public affairs this book would be a shocker. Even with the current disrepute into which pollsters have fallen there seems to be no doubt that the short analysis of the tabular material given by the authors is correctly pointed.

This short book with its brief but sharp analysis (half of the book contains an appendix with the tabular material) should serve to confirm the belief of many social scientists that education must do more to prepare Americans for citizenship. Atomic energy and world affairs are complementary activities on which depends human survival. The findings reported here are aids to clarify our thinking. They throw a challenge to every person who has the responsibility of guiding the thinking and actions of other fellow men.

GRANT W. JENSON

McFarland High School
McFarland, California

Crusade in Europe. By General Dwight Eisenhower. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1948. Pp. xiv, 559. \$3.00.

Crusade in Europe is General Dwight Eisenhower's personal story of World War II. It is a straightforward, orderly account of events in North Africa and Europe from the outbreak of the war until the conflict's end. Written with-

out flamboyance or literary frill but with a keen sense of drama, the narrative reflects in many ways the traits which we have come to associate with Eisenhower—such qualities, for example, as modesty, candor, fairness, and tolerance.

Here are the basic facts concerning the European phase of the greatest war in history, set down by the Supreme Commander himself. Those who are looking for sensational revelations will not find them here, but for those who want to understand the pattern of events in the European theater of operations between 1942 and 1945, *Crusade in Europe* will be rewarding reading. The author tells the story of the tremendous planning that preceded the storming of *Festung Europa*, explains the strategy that sent the Allied armies sweeping across a continent, and fills in the background of the fateful decisions which changed the course of history. Here—in short—is the “big picture” of the European war.

Eisenhower throws considerable light on some of the controversial incidents of the war. For example, in speaking of the Darlan episode, he says that the failure of Allied intelligence to size up the political sentiment correctly in North Africa made it necessary to deal with the Vichyite in order to prevent further bloodshed. The idea that the war might have been ended in the summer of 1944 by allocating all available supplies to a single spear-heading group—a view which gained favor in some quarters—is characterized by Eisenhower as “completely fantastic!” He tells why the American army did not try to take Berlin in the spring of 1945, and defends the steps that were taken with sound reasoning.

Eisenhower's comments on some of the outstanding war leaders make good reading. He found Churchill to be “a master in argument and debate,” and he thoroughly liked and admired him. His deep respect for General Marshall is evident. He thought that Franklin Roosevelt, as leader of a nation at war, “fulfilled all that could possibly be expected of him,” though he says that he “could never possibly agree with some of Mr. Roosevelt's political acts.”

Eisenhower obviously liked Patton, and understood—and utilized—his emotional drive as probably no other commander would have been

able to do. Montgomery, described as a master of the carefully planned attack, comes in for praise, but, restrained though Eisenhower is in his personal comments, it is apparent that both Patton and Montgomery were "problems" at times. The fact that Eisenhower used the diverse talents of these two men to such effect will in itself strike most readers as convincing evidence of his fitness for the post of Supreme Commander.

While this book is sure of its place in military literature, it is far more than an account of battlefield strategy. Those who want to understand why we fought—as well as how we fought—cannot ignore *Crusade in Europe*. Excellent maps and carefully selected photographs add to the value of this volume as an authoritative record of World War II in North Africa and Europe.

HOWARD O. SWEET

Civic Education Service
Washington, D. C.

The Proper Study of Mankind. By Stuart Chase. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. xxvii, 311. \$3.00.

As different in content as difficult to write, and we hope as decisive in influencing the course of future social science, is this book. A serious beginning of an attempt to learn the laws, principles, and techniques which govern man, is its purpose. Mr. Chase believes that the scientific method, although much more difficult to use in the study of human relations than of the material universe, can be used successfully in this quest.

Ten characteristics of the scientific method are listed to explain rather fully the mental attitude and correct procedure of the true social scientist. Human emotions are thrown out in the experiments conducted on definite problems in a space-time world. There are no self-evident propositions in science, which is dynamic and self-correcting. The final appeal is to experiment or observation on the non-verbal level. "An argument may answer a philosopher, it will never answer an experiment." A chapter on "how to design a pilot" demonstrates the satisfactory applications of the scientific method to a practical problem.

The heart of the book is the intensely inter-

esting chapter on the culture concept. This concept of anthropologists and sociologists is coming to be thought of as basic. The social scientist must begin with the investigation of culture, the ways of life which characterize different groups. The concept demolishes many cherished ideas and dogmas about ourselves and our society. One's thoughts, language, his tool-using muscles, his tastes, all are developed in special patterns during his childhood and youth.

The culture concept, according to the author, gives us a new perspective in history. It shows us that the culture pattern slowly shifts under the pressure of climate, new inventions, internal need. Civilizations may die, but rarely cultures. Leaders do not make the times, but rather are an expression of society. Reformers can succeed only slowly because of the hold culture patterns have on adults. A new civilization could be developed in less than a quarter of a century, if children could be brought up in new culture patterns, but adults all around the young impress on them existing patterns and thus civilization usually changes slowly. The chapter ends on the optimistic note that since our problems are due to bad culture patterns and not to innate badness in people, there is hope of slow improvement of culture patterns and thus of the solution of our problems.

My culture pattern causes me to question this basic assumption of innate goodness or even non-moral quality of man. If it can be scientifically established that the innumerable problems of man are due primarily to bad culture patterns rather than to man's selfishness, a revolutionary fact in the social science, of greater importance than atomic energy in the natural science, has been found.

Although space limitation causes me to pass over half the book at this point with only this statement that it contains many excellent examples of the application of the scientific method to human relations, I must mention a corollary of the culture concept. Cultural lag, the time between the acceptance of any invention and the change in institutions and beliefs made necessary by the invention, is one of the most useful and important principles in all social science. Some of our most important and perplexing problems, such as mass unemployment, inadequate housing, economic insecurity, are noted as really problems in cultural lag—

that gulf between the facts of the current world and our belief about them.

Through the use of the five disciplines: (1) cultural anthropology, (2) social psychology, (3) sociology, (4) economics, and (5) political science, assisted by four main tools: (1) mathematics, (2) statistics, (3) logic, (4), semantics, outstanding accomplishments have been made in the field of human relations and others are in the offing. We are reaching toward a science of man which may be necessary to save civilization and even man.

NORMAN C. BRILLHARDT

Reading High School
Reading, Pennsylvania

Gandhi's Autobiography: The Story of My Experiments With Truth. By M. K. Gandhi. Translated from the original in Gujarati. By Mahadev Desai. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. xlii, 640. \$5.00.

This is the story of Gandhi's numerous experiments with truth in the political field, which are well known, and also in the spiritual field, which are not as well known as the political experiments. The unmistakable power he possessed was a result of his spiritual life. His success in the political field was a direct result of his spirituality. His goal was "Moksha," the nearest English equivalent being salvation, and all his accomplishments were directed towards this goal. His quest for truth led him to include non-violence and celibacy and other principles of conduct in his experiments.

The humility of Gandhi, one of the greatest men this world has known in many years, is impressive. In this book he lays his soul bare with an honesty that few men possess. He neither spares his feelings nor praises himself. He pursues the truth mercilessly. He speaks to the world as its conscience.

Gandhi's quest for truth is stimulating and encouraging to all those who search for the Absolute Truth, God, whom he calls "that which alone is real." Gandhi was not a professing Christian, but many of the Christian qualities he demonstrated in his life. By Christian and non-Christian he is admired. He believed that: "Religions are different roads converging to the same point."

In his experiments with truth, he discovered that it touched all of life and all lives and all

classes including the non-touchables of his own India. His sympathy was certainly with the down-trodden and impoverished people of his own nationality. He said: "It has always been a mystery to me how men can feel themselves honored by the humiliation of their fellow-beings."

His experiments with truth led him, not without great struggle, to self-purification and self-discipline. His spiritual power was a direct result of self-control. "God can never be realized by one who is not pure of heart," he said. Realization of God was his goal through all of life. His experiments with truth led him to God. Man can profit by the life of Gandhi which was a life well lived.

REV. RUSSELL M. SWARTLEY

East Bangor, Pennsylvania

Plunkitt of Tammany Hall: A Series of Very Plain Talks on Very Practical Politics, Delivered by Ex-Senator George Washington Plunkitt, the Tammany Philosopher, from his Rostrum—the New York County Court-House Bootblack Stand—and Recorded by William L. Riordan. Introduction by Roy V. Peel. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948. Pp. lvi, 132. \$2.50.

Tammany Hall has been a flourishing institution in the city of New York from the earliest days of the Republic. This delightful volume, first published in 1905, explains in part why Tammany Hall or any political machine, for that matter, has been able to thrive in an urban environment. A political machine like Tammany, the reader will quickly discern, is a large scale business organization performing a valuable social service for its followers and the citizens of the metropolis. For its followers, the machine provides jobs, while each district leader looks after the needs, knows the problems, and in many instances is a close friend of the people of his district. Generally, as in the business world, a bright youngster can work his way up through the ranks into a position of prominence. Such was the case of George Washington Plunkitt, or more spectacular, Alfred E. Smith. At all events these "Very Plain Talks" and the excellent critical introduction of Professor Peel should make it abundantly clear that a black and white interpretation of Tammany Hall will no longer suffice.

The author of these discourses, George Washington Plunkitt, was never a key man in the organization but was an able officer loyally serving Bosses Tweed, Kelly, Crocker, and Murphy. His words in most cases are as pertinent today as they were when he uttered them at the turn of the century. Plunkitt carefully distinguishes between honest graft and dishonest graft. Honest graft, practiced by most Tammany leaders, consisted of merely taking advantage of the opportunities that came their way through advance knowledge of what the legislature or other governing bodies would do; dishonest graft comprised such nefarious traits as "black-mailin' gamblers, saloon-keepers, disorderly people, etc." Plunkitt, however, nowhere mentions William H. Tweed, who practiced honest graft on such a grand scale that he finally aroused the moral indignation of the populace of New York. As long as honest graft was not so flagrant that it awoke citizens from their political lethargy, reformers would have a difficult time.

Another of Plunkitt's pet themes was Civil Service, which removed vital patronage from the control of the machine. Tammany leaders considered it un-American and the reader will no doubt chuckle as the author presents his case. The talks on "Reformers Only Mornin' Glories," "Tammany Leaders Not Bookworms," "Tammany the Only Lastin' Democracy," "Bosses Preserve the Nation," to mention but a few, will delight as well as provoke the reader to some serious thought. The essay on "Tammany's Patriotism" should be reprinted in future anthologies of American humor; it is guaranteed to produce hearty belly laughs.

Teachers in particular should find these "Very Plain Talks on Practical Politics" valuable in promoting discussion on the verities of political life in our urban areas. This volume, though first printed over forty years ago, is still pertinent today; and both Professor Peel, for his informed scholarly introduction which fills in the background of the text, and Alfred A. Knopf, the publisher, are to be commended for bringing once again "Plunkitt of Tammany Hall" to the attention of the public.

RICHARD LOWITT

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The End of an Era. The Album of American History: Volume IV. Edited by James Truslow Adams. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948. \$7.50.

Several years ago Charles Scribner's Sons launched a major historical enterprise when they engaged James Truslow Adams to be the editor-in-chief of a pictorial history of the United States. With the publication, in October of 1948, of *The End of An Era*, this enterprise has been completed. The four volumes contain more than 5,000 pictures and run to nearly 2,000 pages. They tell the story of our national development from the discovery of the Continent through the entrance of the United States into the First World War.

This last volume in the series begins with the depression of 1893. It covers our war with Spain and highlights the political activities of William Jennings Bryan, Woodrow Wilson, Theodore Roosevelt, and William McKinley. Here are pictures of the social life of the "gilded age," both among the wealthy and in the city slums. Here is a pictorial account of the activities and influence of the muckrakers. One can find here a record of the origins of such heavy industries as oil and steel, automobile and airplane; of the growth of the silent movie industry and the move for conservation and economic reform. One finds pictures of the first airplane and the first phonograph, of the demands for social reform and of the dynamic leadership of Woodrow Wilson during the first two years of his Presidency. Here is a record of that most picturesque of political campaigns: Bryan on the march and McKinley on his front porch—an age when prating of unity and co-operation paid off in votes.

This is in some respects the most satisfactory volume in the series. Historians may find, as in the first three, an unwarranted emphasis on certain topics or misleading captions. Yet such criticisms would seem less merited than with the earlier volumes. The range of pictorial material is wider, and the very fact that so many of the incidents will be within the memory of many readers will increase its interest. Teachers, from elementary school through high school, will find it as useful as its predecessors.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State Teachers College
Cortland, New York

John Hancock: Patriot in Purple. By Herbert S. Allan. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 405, \$6.00.

In this biography of *John Hancock: Patriot in Purple*, Mr. Allan has analyzed the hitherto unknown character of one of our founding fathers. After reading several chapters one might conclude that a correct picture was drawn by James Truslow Adams in his *Portrait of an Empty Barrel*. However, through the author's skill and superior historical research, frequently that picture changes. Hancock's saving grace and his greatest contribution to the founding of the nation was his ability to mediate between antagonistic factions and maintain the semblance of unity.

John Hancock was the heir to a fortune built up in two great wars by his Uncle Thomas, a shrewd Boston merchant. Lacking the ability of his uncle, he turned to politics where he proved very successful. Popular acclaim, the ruling passion of his life, proved him an exhibitionist extraordinary. He opposed the Stamp Act on economic and constitutional grounds. However, he had been lukewarm, if not downright cold, toward the idea of Independence. By 1774, he was firmly established in the minds of his associates as President of the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts and Chairman of the Committee of Safety. He had the ability to make people feel that his decisions, although going counter to his own interests, nevertheless were for the best interest of all. He could arouse the enthusiasm of the multitude and surround the Revolutionary movement with the aura of respectability. Gentry and commonalty were inspired by his decisions.

It was his good fortune to be President of the Second Continental Congress. Here he signed the Declaration of Independence with large letters in a manner so famous in American tradition. Thus having mediated between antagonistic factions, maintaining the semblance of unity, he made Independence an actuality in an official sense. For this service alone he is entitled to high esteem from his spiritual descendants. Although in many respects merely a glorified clerk, he nevertheless was almost an indispensable cog in the creaking governmental machinery. The "Patriot in Purple," with a firm

signature, marked the rich man as the leading rebel.

Apparently Samuel Adams had an influence on the earlier part of Hancock's life. However, in 1777, upon his return to Boston, he became greatly interested in local politics, in opposition to Samuel and John Adams. From 1780 to his death in 1793, he was continuously elected governor of Massachusetts except during Shay's Rebellion. In the State Convention of 1788, his prestige secured the adoption of the Federal Constitution. Amendments protecting individual and states' rights were adopted through his influence.

We are amazed at the petty, vain, and pompous Hancock when he asked Washington for an escort so that he might travel home from Philadelphia in a style befitting him. His longing for martial glory was a complete failure. One of his most ludicrous exhibitions was the contest he waged on the occasion of Washington's state visit to New England in 1789. In a foolish contest of stubbornness and lack of proper respect for the President of the United States, he showed a mulishness seldom exhibited in this era of honoring our first President.

The author of this biography leaves us with a question concerning Hancock's conduct as treasurer of Harvard. There was no evidence presented which would lead us to conclude how capable Hancock was. Apparently Harvard's officials were not able to meet the stubborn attitude of the one handling their accounts. He frequently refused to give an accounting. This creates a doubt concerning the honesty of the "Patriot in Purple."

In addition, at times, too much stress has been placed upon Hancock's popularity with the crowd. Although the Adamses were cold and austere, nevertheless these qualities greatly aided the Revolutionary cause in typical New England. Many admired the enthusiasm of the great Beacon Hill plutocrat, but real political wisdom and statesmanship emanated from the thinking of the New England Brain Trust.

We know that the American Revolution was not a class war, nor were the "patriots in purple" as rare as we may conclude from this biography. The aristocracy of the mind was

one of the most effective elements in this great struggle for freedom.

Since finding the truth is a complicated process, we feel that the author has given us an excellent example of arriving at conclusions based upon more knowledge than we have had before.

L. F. WAIDELICH

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Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Twentieth Century Speech and Voice Correction. Edited by Emil Froeschels, M.D. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. xxii, 313. \$6.00.

This volume, as stated in the foreword by Dr. Froeschels, is written primarily to give "persons scientifically and practically interested in voice correction the latest developments in this field."

Each chapter is a separate unit written by an authority in that particular field. The first chapter, written by Dr. Froeschels himself deals with the anatomy of the throat, chest, nose and explains how sounds are produced. Eminent authorities discuss aphasia, dysarthria, and alalia. Testing the hearing of children, psychic deafness in children, the education of deaf children and adults, educational therapy of the hard of hearing cover several chapters. What clinics can do for people with unpleasant voices is most interesting. The cause of cleft palate, the operation and after-treatment, stuttering, cluttering, hearing rehabilitation, and speech defects due to war wounds are considered.

In the chapter on remedial reading Mr. Bontrager, Director of the Reading Clinic, State Teachers' College, California, Pennsylvania ridicules modern clinical methods of trying to train the student in "getting thought from the printed page." He feels that in this age of atom bombs and dictators a reader, for self-preservation must have backgrounds of information and the ability to evaluate the writers' concepts. How to do this is our problem.

The last part of the book takes up the training of the singing voice and the speaking voice, especially after operations.

The volume will be of interest particularly to doctors, scientists and clinical workers.

ELIZABETH WOLLE

Bartram High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Economy of the USSR During World War II. By Nikolai A. Voznesensky. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. 103. \$3.00.

This book is one of the most important documents to come from Russia since the war. It offers the official interpretation of the Soviet economy during the last war and presents plans for the postwar reconstruction. The English translation was made by the Russian Translation Program of the American Council of Learned Societies.

Nikolai Voznesensky, deputy premier of the USSR and Chief of the State Planning Commission, writes to buttress the Soviet regime in general and to champion Stalin's leadership in particular. Like all official publications his work is primarily propaganda. He enunciates the party line for the faithful on numerous topics, and arrays much statistical information to prove his points.

First of all, he declares that Stalin had better prepared the nation for war in 1939 than it had been prepared in 1913. He then compares the economic situation of World War I with that of World War II to show the superiority of Russia during the latter. One chapter, "The Economic Victory of Socialism," is devoted to the thesis that the Soviet Union's victory over Germany was a triumph of socialism over capitalism. To emphasize this point, he reduces to insignificance the part played by Russia's allies in the war and especially minimizes the importance of American lend-lease. He even interprets the war with Japan as a victory for the Soviet Union.

This work, however, is more than propaganda; it conveys valuable information on the organization and performance of the Soviet economy. Two chapters particularly stress the impact of war. One on the "Costs and Losses of the National Economy" describes the enormous devastation suffered in the areas occupied by Germany. Such losses will require long laborious years of reconstruction and rehabilitation. Another chapter, "Reconstruction of the Economy in the Course of the War," recounts the heroic achievement of transferring industry from Western Russia, in the path of Hitler's army, to the Urals. This exploit alone demonstrates the Soviet skill and technique in planning and directing production.

Mr. Voznesensky presents copious statistical information. How reliable is it? To what extent can this be used to ascertain the economic progress made by the Soviet Union and the present performance of its economy? Alexander Gershenkron evaluates Voznesensky's statistical data in the *American Economic Review* (September, 1948, pp. 649-657). He finds that the index of output contains an upward distortion and that other information is so fragmentary that it can be made meaningful only by careful reconstruction and consolidation.

RAYMOND G. COWHERD

Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

A Survey of American Government. By Harold Zink. New York: Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxxviii, 809. \$4.75.

Professor Harold Zink's book, which is an abridgment of his *Government and Politics in the United States*, is definitely on the collegiate level. It is a splendid supplementary volume which will enable a teacher to broaden his approach to a problem in government. A classroom textbook could hardly supply the wealth of information so readily found in this book.

Professor Zink begins his generous work with a discussion of the various forms of government that humans have evolved, and fits our American democratic form into this background. Historical developments of American political institutions are emphasized. The author states that "a balanced view of the current situation depends to a considerable extent on a knowledge of the foundations." Every teacher with actual firing-line classroom experience will shout a lusty "Amen" to that statement.

The Constitutional Convention and its product are thoroughly portrayed, but the modern interpretations, attitudes and philosophies of the three departments are also shown. The evolution of our present-day government is traced from its colonial inception to the New Deal era. The author buttresses his facts by copious references and a generous use of footnotes. The details of legislative, executive and judicial procedure and the changing concepts of these activities are traced in a scholarly, yet lucid style. To name an example, the reader will have no difficulty in following a bill on its laborious way

through Congress and will also know why and how the way is so devious.

Modernity is stressed in this book and the reader will find the many new commissions and governmental agencies are included and the new social, labor, agricultural, defense and foreign programs are described. Another modern touch is provided by a study of the effect of the human element on our political institutions and adequate space is provided for pressure groups, public opinion, political parties and citizenship. The author makes a wide use of illustrative materials. Instructive charts, cuts, diagrams, and maps are frequently used, and the visual aids supplied by the Graphic Institute and the Pictograph Corporation are especially good. Each chapter ends with an extensive bibliography of selected references which will supply the reader with much supplementary material.

Secondary school teachers of American history, civics or political science will welcome this book as a valuable addition to their professional library. Here one will find the answer to the many questions on federal, state, and local governmental detail that a zealous class loves to ask.

MICHAEL W. FISCH

Social Studies Department
Frankford High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Background of World Affairs. By Julia Emery. Revised and enlarged. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1948. Pp. xi, 386. \$2.24.

In the light of the growing gravity and complexity of world problems, and of the vast international commitments of the United States, high school students who graduate without a knowledge of the background of current international issues will be poorly prepared to meet their responsibilities as American citizens. *Background of World Affairs* is designed to provide such knowledge. It is an intelligent and readable, if not wholly satisfactory, text. It surveys major world events since 1914, with some references to events of the previous century. While the emphasis is on political developments, considerable attention is given to geographical, economic, and cultural matters, and there are separate chapters on international law

(which may not appeal to high school students) and on the United Nations.

The "revised and enlarged" edition of this text is substantially the first edition, which was published in 1942, with three additional chapters on "Cooperation in Wartime," "The United Nations," and "Intranational and International Readjustments." Several of the remaining chapters should have been thoroughly revised, and all of them should have been brought up to date. Even the three new chapters contain few references to events since 1946, and are therefore already badly outdated.

Unfortunately, the book is poorly organized, and contains many needless errors of fact and questionable statements. For example, Trotsky was not living in Switzerland at the outbreak of the Russian Revolution, and he did not go to Russia with Lenin in a sealed train, as stated on page 97. The assertion on page 167 that consuls "have no theoretical privileges over ordinary citizens" is misleading. In December, 1937, the Irish Free State became Ireland or Eire, but Miss Emery uses the older designation when discussing Ireland's neutrality in World War II. In a single paragraph on page 304 Iwo Jima is placed east, instead of south, of Tokyo, and Okinawa south instead of southwest of Japan proper. "Flying Fortresses and other planes, largely based on these two islands," states the author in the same paragraph, "hammered points in the principal islands of Japan," whereas the truth is that the main bases of the Superfortresses—not the older and smaller Flying Fortresses—which attacked Japan were on Saipan, Tinian, and Guam. Wrong dates are given for the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, and the Washington Conference of 1921-1922 (which is erroneously styled the Washington Disarmament Conference).

The Paris Conference in the summer of 1946 was never officially known as a Peace Conference, as it is called on page 365; in fact, great care was taken to avoid this designation. Illustrative of the many generalizations which should have been qualified are the following: (1) "Communism would summarily abolish all other regimes, not gradually supersede them" (p. 217); and (2) "Since the close of World War II the United States and the countries of

Latin America have continued to cooperate effectively to the advantage of all" (p. 356).

At the end of each chapter of this book are useful "Questions and Topics for Discussion" and "Optional Assignments." There are nearly thirty maps and about forty pages of tables giving a chronological record of world events, chiefly since 1919.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Earth and Man: A Human Geography. By Darrel Haug Davis, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxiv, 696. \$5.00.

At the very beginning of World War II, there was a tragic dearth of respectable studies in geography in America which would satisfy the needs of scholarship by sudden impact of Germany's *Geopolitik*. Davis's contribution, originally planned to meet the needs of beginning geography classes in American institutions of higher learning, approaches the topic from the standpoint of human ecology—that is, conceiving man's economic activities in their areal, environmental settings (a study of terrestrial unities).

Originally published in 1942, this edition differs from the first in some important particulars, particularly in regard to the increase in the number of chapters and greater uniformity in their length, and some rearrangement of subject matter. In both editions, the author's emphasis is upon how and why man's visible inquiries on the earth's surface, as shown by his works, are affected by natural and regional inheritance. In evaluation of the function of environment, Davis considers man as the active agent, environment the passive. With this as a premise, he conceives that man cannot "conquer nature" but that he exists only by her sufferance, succeeding only insofar as he regulates his activities to profit from such opportunity as presented. The treatment covers Man's Distribution and Numbers, Environment, Elements of the Physical or Natural Environment, How Man Obtains His Livelihood, and a section covering such topics as the development of mapping, a discussion of latitude, longitude, map projection, map scales, methods of land survey, etc.

All in all, this is a distinguished volume which easily matches the high standards of man's geographical knowledge achieved abroad. Numerous maps, photographs, drawings and statistics are but another valuable addition to the volume—although, for one reason or another, the "Selected References" are sometimes more than pitiful.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

Love and Marriage. By F. Alexander Magoun.
New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. xvii, 369. \$3.00.

This is another in the growing list of good books written for use in college and university courses, in parenthood and the family. The author is Associate Professor of Human Relations in Massachusetts Institute of Technology, where he has had a number of years of experience teaching in the field covered by the text.

The approach follows in the tradition of Groves and other well known writers on the subject of marriage and the family. The chief problem of marriage is conceived to be that of achieving happiness in the marital relationship. True happiness implies the capacity to give one's self freely without fear to something which is emotionally satisfying. To attain happiness in marriage one must be qualified for happiness and be able to create the conditions which make happiness possible. It requires a mutual sharing of interests and life experiences in an emotionally satisfying atmosphere. Repeatedly, the author points out that it is not the acts that count but the emotion that the acts convey. The whole discussion of love, marriage and the qualifications for marriage, is stimulating and wholesome. There is stress on mutuality throughout the volume. "Two people love each other when they naturally and honestly fulfil each other's emotional needs." (p. 7)

The book contains little that has not been said before. Its appeal is not in the originality of its contents but in the fresh, vigorous and straightforward manner in which it is said.

Most of the usual subjects are covered. There is a chapter on marriage, the pre-marital sex problem, criteria for choosing a mate, courtship, engagement, the honeymoon, the sex rela-

tion, emotional adjustments, parents and children, and religion in the home.

The book is well written. Its timeliness and soundness should give it a wide audience. Students of marriage and the family, parents, and young people who are contemplating "the greatest adventure of life" can read it with profit.

MORRIS S. GRETH

Muhlenberg College
Allentown, Pennsylvania

The Liberal Presidents. By J. C. Long. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1948. Pp. xi, 226. \$3.75.

There are many people who feel that all phases of the lives of our Presidents and their work have been thoroughly covered and so definitely judged that not much more remains to be said on the subject. J. C. Long's book on *The Liberal Presidents* will make such folk scratch their heads and start thinking again.

The first thought that comes to one's mind in reading the title of this book is: "Who are these liberal Presidents?" We soon discover that the author regards Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, Van Buren, Lincoln, Johnson, Hayes, Theodore Roosevelt and Franklin D. Roosevelt as the outstanding liberal Presidents, although there were others who may approach the men mentioned above in liberality of their views.

One of the outstanding trends to follow in reading this book is to notice how each of these Presidents became liberal. In some cases it was due to the life of the President himself; in other cases it was shaped by their opponents; in the final group we find that one President was forced to become a liberal because of the conditions of the times under which he lived.

Students and teachers frequently desire to have documents that are difficult to find and thus the author has performed a great service in his book by including epoch-making documents in the appendix, such as Washington's First Annual Address, and his Farewell Address; Jefferson's Kentucky Resolutions of 1799; Jackson's Specie Circular Message; Abraham Lincoln's Second Annual Message; Andrew Johnson's Message on Union and Reconstruction; and Theodore Roosevelt's Fifth Annual Message.

It is indeed a pleasure to recommend this book to students of history for interesting and informative reading.

Social Work: An Introduction to the Field. By Herbert Hewitt Stroup. New York: American Book Company, 1948. Pp. xiv, 695. \$4.50.

Social work is becoming more attractive to university students; it offers a challenge to our youth. The old days of "Lady Bountiful" are past; social work has become a profession. The beginning student is interested in the field in general, but frequently is at a loss in selection of a definite field. Dr. Stroup has made a real contribution in this book, which presents the various fields for the reader to evaluate and draw his own conclusions. The work is simple enough for the lay public. An enlightened lay public is one of the greatest assets in the welfare program. The author states in the preface the following: "It [the book] should have value not only for the college student for whom it is primarily intended but also for the citizen who wishes to know social work. To those who are already active in community affairs of a social welfare characteristic, and to those who some day hope to be, this book should provide a basic understanding of this field of interest."

This book gives a good discussion of the history, development, function, and illustrations of family case work, children in institutions, foster homes, school social work, child guidance clinics, social work with delinquents, medical social work, psychiatric social work, and community organizations. Many case studies are used which add interest to content. Charts and graphs are used freely throughout the book. In all, the reviewer feels that this is the best book in the field and predicts wide use in class and discussion groups. The well selected reading lists will prove useful for the student as well as the teacher.

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HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS PAMPHLETS

The Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 Front Street, Columbus, Ohio, has prepared four fine text units for social studies classes: "Latin America and its Future"; "Why Taxes"; "Housing in the United States"; "Conservation of Natural Resources." 40 cents each.

New Threats To American Freedom. By Robert E. Cushman. Public Affairs Pamphlets, Num-

ber 143. Public Affairs Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, N. Y. 20 cents.

Fight Crime With Facts. Compiled by the producers of Mr. District Attorney of radio fame.

These pamphlets are very good for use as supplementary material in the unit of crime in problems courses and may be secured free of charge by writing to Public Relations Dept., Doherty, Clifford and Shenfield, Inc., 350 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, N. Y.

Chinese Ideas in the West. By Derk Bodde. American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. 50 cents.

A fine pamphlet that can be used in the study of the topic of foreign affairs.

A.B.C.'s of Scape-Goating. By Gordon W. Allport. Anti-Defamation League, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. 20 cents.

The Challenge of Atomic Energy. By Ryland W. Crary and Others. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. 90 cents.

A resource unit and discussion guide for teachers on a timely subject.

Face to Face With Russia. By Philip E. Mosely. Headline Series, Number 701. Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16, N. Y. 35 cents.

This pamphlet can be used in the study of foreign affairs or with current events classes.

ARTICLES

"Letters to a Teacher on Controversial Questions," by Fred T. Wilhelms, *Progressive Education*, XXVI (October, 1948).

"What's Right With the Social Studies," by Kenneth M. Gould, *Senior Scholastic*, Teacher Edition (January 5, 1949).

"What Price Advisership?" by Charles F. Troxell, *School Activities*, Volume XX, (January, 1949).

An interesting article for social studies teachers who take part in extra-curricular activities.

"Atlantic Report on Mexico," *Atlantic Monthly*, (October, 1948).

A description of present-day economic conditions in Mexico.

"What Kind of High School Do You Want?" by Francis T. Spaulding, *Ladies Home Journal*, (August, 1948).

"My Fifty Years in the White House," by Ira

R. T. Smith, *Saturday Evening Post* (December 18, 1948).

A series of eight weekly articles beginning with the December 18, 1948, issue.

These articles will interest all teachers of American history or problems courses.

"Let Us Define our Terms," by Allen A. Warsen, *American Unity*, VII, (October, 1948).

A helpful article that defines numerous terms that arise in social studies.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Theory and Problems of Social Psychology. By David Krech and Richard S. Krutchfield. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. xv, 637, \$4.50.

Here is a distinctive new psychology text for students on the college level.

John M'Coy. His Life and Diaries. By Elizabeth Hayward. New York: American Historical Company, Inc., 1948. Pp. xvi, 493, \$5.00. A biography of an Indiana pioneer.

Education In a Divided World. By James Bryant Conant. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1948. Pp. xi, 249, \$3.00.

In this book Dr. Conant shows how public education from the elementary school to the university must put into practice the ideals which it proclaims.

Work Book in American History. By Rudolph Leopold Biese. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948. Pp. 113. Maps. \$1.35.

The material in this work book is designed to accompany the textbook *American Political and Social History*, by Harold Underwood Faulkner.

Pupil Personnel Service. Edited by Frank G. Davis. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Text Book Company, 1948. Pp. xix, 640, \$4.00. Creative and unique in its approach, this book can be used for a basic course in guidance.

The Lost World of Thomas Jefferson. By Daniel J. Boorstein. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1948. Pp. iv, 294, \$4.00.

A book that throws a new light on the work of Thomas Jefferson.

Your Life in the Country. By Effie G. Bathurst. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. v, 392, \$2.80.

The purpose of this book is to stimulate boys and girls living in rural communities to a fine way of life.

Government of Cities in the United States. By Harold Zink. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxxii, 635, \$5.00.

A valuable contribution to the field of municipal government and administration.

New Zealand Through American Eyes. By Frances Norene Ahl. Boston, Massachusetts: Christopher Publishing House, 1948. Pp. xiii, 189, \$2.50.

Here is New Zealand as an American sees it.

The Truman Program. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. Washington, D. C. Public Affairs Press, 1949. Pp. xvii, 261, \$2.95.

An outline of things to come in the next four years.

The Earth and Man. By Darrell Haug Davis. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 1, 696, \$5.00.

A textbook planned to meet the needs of beginning geography classes in colleges and universities.

An Encyclopedia of World History. Compiled and edited by William L. Langer, Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1949. Pp. 1270, \$7.50.

A reference book that every teacher of history should have in his personal library.

Dangerous Trends. By Porter Sargent. Boston, Massachusetts: Porter Sargent Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 190, \$2.00.

This book shows how undercurrents economic and political affect education.

World Geography. By John Hodgdon Bradley. New York: Ginn and Company, 1948. Pp. xxii, 487, \$2.52.

This revised edition has been carefully planned to meet changing world conditions.

Today's Problems. By R. O. Hughes. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1949. Pp. xxiii, 800, \$2.60.

A book that sets a high standard for courses in Problems of American Democracy.